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Editor's Page

IN THE NAME OF SANITY

POR his presidential address, which he gave at Oxford in the latter part of the summer, Dr. E. D. Adrian, distinguished member of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, spoke on the subject of "Science and Human Nature." Dr. Adrian warned the assembled scientists that repeated explosions of atomic bombs might produce enough general radio activity to destroy all life on earth. This being true, he said, "the scientist has a double responsibility. He must apply his science to the study of human nature" and "he must make it abundantly clear now that the human race cannot stand more than a few thousand major atomic explosions. . . ."

There is grim irony, which we confess we do not enjoy, in the picture of science warning us against the instrument it created. It is as though a father, having given his three-year-old son a stick of dynamite, were to stand frozen in terror at one side of the room while the baby playfully tossed the explosive into the air. To be sure, there is an essential difference between the two situations: the hypothetical parent might with luck retrieve the dynamite and hide it forever from irresponsible hands, but the secrets of science, once revealed, can never be withdrawn.

R. ADRIAN addressed his warning to scientists; Lewis Mumford, writing on the same general theme in his latest book, In the Name of Sanity, has a message for all of us. Mumford is as concerned as Adrian over the atomic bomb, and his chapter on "Assumptions and Predictions" makes terrifying reading. And Mumford, like Adrian, believes that the scientist has larger responsibilities than he has yet been willing to accept. Speaking of the atomic bomb, he says that "to turn such an instrument loose on society, without erecting fresh moral safeguards and controls, in particular without creating an effective system of world government, was an act of incredible irresponsibility." But the scientist

cannot be made the whipping boy for man's shortcomings. All of us must share the blame.

The predicament in which we find ourselves is the inevitable consequence of our own misguided faith in science and technology. Bedazzled by a world of pushbuttons, machines, and labor-saving gadgets, we have wandered so far from the path of truth that we now equate bathtubs and civilization, or, as Mumford puts it, "technical progress and the advance of the human spirit." Our belief in the powers of science approximates the primitive belief in magic; come what may, the new scientific discovery will solve the problem.

All this is sheer nonsense. The plain truth is that the development of technics magnifies our problems. As Mumford points out, "As soon as we achieve the theoretic goal of annihilating distance entirely-as we now do for all practical purposes even without television when we telephone overseas-we come back again precisely to where we started: to the village world of face-to-face contact with over two billion villagers for neighbors, and at that point our human weaknesses, serious enough in a village society, become magnified far more rapidly than our virtues, by reason of the technical process itself; just as a public-address system, blaring to the world from a family dinner table, would accentuate its trivialities and bickerings rather than the less visible processes of love and devotion. Thanks to technics, men have become physically neighbors to people on the other side of the earth; but we have done little to train ourselves in habits of courtesy, in disciplines of mutual forebearance, which would keep us in amicable relations."

Man's day-by-day relations with his family, his friends, and his fellow workers; his endless striving to learn, to grow, to create; his need for recognition, for a sense of belonging, and his infinite loneliness when these are withheld from him; and, not least, his dreams and aspirations—these—not the bathtubs, television sets, automobiles, and other technics—are the substance of life. As scientists like Dr. Adrian and humanists like Lewis Mumford have warned, we shall not understand ourselves and the world in which we

(Concluded on page 367)

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In Quest of European Unity

Anthony Scarangello

HERE can be no doubt that the political and economic fragmentation of Europe has been both a cause of war and an obstruction in the way of progress. For hundreds of years mistress of the world, Europe has looked on helplessly in recent decades as other powers wrested the mantle of leadership from her. She has watched uneasily as a new economic and political system absorbed more than 800,000,000 of the world's peoples, and she has seen a former colony, profiting in part from her decline, become a colossus of democratic strength. While she dissipated her energies on the battlefield in a useless struggle pitting sovereignty against sovereignty, new giants arose on the world scene: the U.S.S.R. and the United States of America came of age.

And it is generally agreed by thinking people on the Continent that only a United States of Europe, based on the American plan of federation, will save Europe from being absorbed, economically or militarily, by one or the other of

these powers.

In recent months I have had conversations with three of the great leaders of the movement for European unity: Messrs. Robert Schuman, Paul-Henri Spaak, and Jean Monnet. What they have to say is of great moment to Americans, for as Europe goes so goes the world.

ROBERT SCHUMAN

I first saw Robert Schuman in the Chamber of Deputies of the National Assembly building in Paris. The former French Premier and former Foreign Minister, now serving his people as a deputy from the Moselle, was engaged in earnest conversation with a young mother and her small daughter. He was bringing the same serious conviction and purpose to the problems of these two people that he brought to the problems of France when he sat in a position of authority in the driver's seat.

And there was something symbolic of democratic France in this little tableau: an old man who had held the highest offices in his country, a mother and her child—all three on the same foot-

ing, all three having the same voice.

Having tried to settle the problem these two citizens of France had brought to him, M. Schuman led the way to a small ante room in the Chamber of Deputies, In the room there were only two chairs and a table. He sat down, beckoned for me to do the same, and got immediately to the point.

"What do I think about the possibility of a United States of Europe? I think that it will come one day. But it will take a long time, probably longer than the most optimistic of us wish to say. Something as complicated and as laden with drama as formation of one nation out of

many cannot be rushed."

As he spoke, I studied his long serious face. Lean, tall, dressed in sober black, bald except for a fringe of gray hair, Mr. Schuman looks more like the stereotype of the typical French farmer than the great statesman that he is. His intelligence is obviously there, however; it is in his eyes and in his voice.

"We have had war," he said, "because Europe was not united." He clasped and unclasped his expressive hands. "But much as we desire unity we must realize that it cannot be achieved all at once. Nor can it be achieved in a single frame-

work."

The man who gave his name to the European Coal and Steel Community, the first European federation in the history of the Continent, feels that the three greatest obstacles to unity in Europe are, in this order, fear, nationalism, and language.

"What is there to fear? Well, France is afraid of Germany, and she has a right to be, for history

In this article the author reports on a series of conversations he held with Messrs. Robert Schuman, Paul-Henri Spaak, and Jean Monnet while traveling in Europe last spring on a fellowship from the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education. Mr. Scarangello is a teacher of social studies at Smithtown (New York) High School.

cannot be ignored. Some nations are afraid they will lose more than they will gain by unity. But this is not so. Most important of all is the fear of change. That is our greatest obstacle, for tradition—and we have more than our share on the Continent—dies hard."

I inquired about the progress made to date by the Schuman Plan, and he noted with a smile of satisfaction that production of steel has increased by almost 20 percent since the six-nation community—France, Western Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg—came into being some two years ago.

"We must bear in mind," he said, "that expansion of the market, increased consumption, was the main reason for the formation of the coal and steel community. Its creation has also cut tariffs and led to a much better organization of exports."

Because Mr. Schuman does believe that one day a U. S. E. will be created, I inquired about the possible danger that one nation, say Germany, might dominate such a union. "This possibility exists, of course," he said. "How it is solved depends on the statutes of government that are drawn up. But was not this problem solved by compromise in the formation of the U.S.A.?"

Mr. Schuman, who was Foreign Minister when the European Defense Community pact was negotiated, emphasized that a true Franco-German reapproachment had to be worked out. "Unless France and Germany can get along," he said, "there can be no united Europe, no anything."

Recalling that he had once been imprisoned by the Germans for seven months, he said that he could not retain ill will toward them. "We are in Europe and only the Rhine separates us from Germany. We must get along. It is as simple as that."

"Do you think England would consent to join an eventual United States of Europe?" I asked. Mr. Schuman pursed his lips thoughtfully. "I'm afraid not," he said. "Not for the present anyway. England feels that her strength is in the Commonwealth.

"But with or without England I am convinced that the unity of Europe, with all the hopes it raises, is indeed possible and that it is being achieved."

With that we shook hands, and Mr. Schuman, amazingly erect and strong despite his 68 years, strode down the corridor and out of the Chamber of Deputies.

PAUL-HENRI SPAAK

The Belgian Foreign Minister and former Premier acquired international stature as the first president of the United Nations General Assembly (1946).

Short and heavy of stature, Mr. Spaak is the physical opposite of Schuman. But unlike as both men are in appearance they think—and dream—along the same lines.

Noting that Europe had come a long way toward unity since the war's end, Mr. Spaak, one of the most internationally-minded statesmen in the world, pointed especially to the progress made by the council of Europe, the European Coal and Steel Community, and NATO.

"Yes," he said, "there has been great progress in the direction of unity. But we could lose much that we have gained if we are not careful, because the entire balance is so very delicate.

Switching the conversation easily to English, he affirmed that the public in the nations concerned—the informed public—has certainly become more aware of the need for unity and for a common purpose. "The great majority of the thinking people are obviously for a United Europe," he said.

Mr. Spaak deplored French failure to act. He voiced the opinion that the only way France can hope to keep Germany under control is within a unified Europe.

"Is it not true," I asked, "that English unwillingness to join the EDC has been just as much a bar as French resistance to the pact?"

"The only way to change England's position with reference to the Continent," he replied, "is to show her that a unified Europe can work. Only then would she join in any such project."

Belgium's foremost statesman was even more positive in noting what role, if any, Russia and her satellites could hope to play in a unified Europe.

"I should like to point out first that Russia's recent overtures toward NATO were transparently insincere," he said. "The Russians act as if NATO were a political organization. But it is not political; it is military. And as has been observed, you do not ask the burglars to join the police force,

"In the unlikely event that Russia or her satellites did try to join any plan for a unified Europe—call it a U.S.E. if you like—we would have to refuse the request. The systems under which we live, political and economic, are too different. With the Russians and their friends—

unless desired changes take place in their governments-the best we in the West can hope for is

peaceful co-existence."

I asked what part the United States could play in helping to bring about unity among the people of Western Europe. Mr. Spaak called for a good helping of patience and fortitude. "Lend us your moral support," he said. "More than that you cannot do at present, for if your country tried to accelerate the process, you might create the very resentment that would destroy it. Unity will come only if the people want it. They must not feel that they are being coerced into anything."

Always a friend of the United States, Mr. Spaak observed that Marshall Plan aid had made European recovery possible and European unity probable. "The United States is definitely involved here," he said. "On the Continent we no longer speak of the defense of Europe or America, but of the defense of Europe and

America."

Mr. Spaak, who was one of the big voices of the U.N. during that organization's formative years, did not hesitate in singling out the "law of unanimity," the veto, as the U.N.'s greatest weakness. "No international organization can succeed," he emphasized, "if it puts aside decision by majority rule. If the U.N. dies, it will be because of the veto."

Besides holding most of his country's key positions at one time or other during his long political career, the 55-year-old statesman was chairman of the Council for European Recovery during 1948-1949. He has also been president of the Consultative Assembly of the Council of Europe since 1949, chairman of the International Council of the European Movement since 1950, and president of the Common Assembly of the European Coal and Steel Community since 1952.

The 78-man Assembly, the parliament of the Schuman Plan, is elected by and from the legislatures of the Community's member states. It has drafted a treaty for a European political authority, which would be responsible to a parliament directly elected by Europe's voters, and perhaps that is why Mr. Spaak, of all the offices he has held, appears to be most proud of his

association with the Community.

Pointing out that the CECA (Communauté Européenne du Charbon et de l'Acier) as the Schuman Plan is called in Europe, already has a full range of federal institutions, he says, "It is the cornerstone of a United States of Europe, our first federal government."

JEAN MONNET

"Unfortunately for Europe," Jean Monnet's associates told me, "there are few men like Monnet." I was not in Luxembourg long before I

shared their feelings.

The man who heads the European Coal and Steel Community is very short, of medium build, and 65 years of age. He is bald and he wears a small mustache. Efficient in appearance, always immaculately groomed, he seems to have stepped out of one of those "men of distinction" advertisements.

When he speaks, one forgets his slight physical stature, for his very presence fills the room and commands respect. Being in Mr. Monnet's com-

pany is a privilege.

"We have talked about a united Europe for a long time," he said, "but in face of the pressing military and economic necessities of the moment, we must stop talking and start acting."

His is an incisive mind, and he has a gift for getting to the crux of a problem or issue and

explaining it with lucidity.

"If we can't get a greater Europe at present, then we'll settle for a smaller Europe, built around the nations now members of the European Coal and Steel Community and any others who may wish to join," he said.

This community is not only a going concern; it is also proof that European nations can work together and prosper. What is even more to the point, it has commenced at the base of all modern economies, the lifeblood of industry—coal and

steel.

On a large sheet of paper Mr. Monnet drew a three-sided figure. The industrial heart of Western Europe, he explained, is a triangle of which each side is roughly 250 miles long. Stretching from the coalfields of the Ruhr across the coalfields of Belgium to those of Northern France, it is bounded in the south by the coal and iron ore fields of Lorraine, the Saar and Luxembourg. This area includes over 90 percent of the coal and 70 percent of the iron ore of the Community. With the creation of the single market for coal and steel, the natural economic advantages of this industrial triangle are for the first time linked together.

Noting that the original idea of the so-called Schuman Plan was to achieve first economic unity, then military unity (EDC), and finally political unity, Mr. Monnet observed that the first of these three objectives had been achieved. This, he assured me, would lead to better stand-

ards of living for all concerned.

"And this is as it should be," he said. "The people of Europe are no less intelligent or hardworking than others. Proof of this is not wanting. The trouble is that they are working within narrow limits and are producing for confined markets while others command great areas and vast markets."

Asked what future he saw for Europe, he hinted rather broadly that he saw no future at all worth speaking about outside of federation. National sovereignty in Europe, the notion that each nation could be a law unto itself, he said, could only lead, as it has in the past, to disaster.

"In Europe, our genius is being wasted within narrow confines, our nations are being destroyed periodically in the name of national sovereignty. This is madness. It must cease if Europe is to be saved.

"And what is stopping us from uniting, from creating wealth instead of destroying it? More than anything else, it is the fear of change which keeps us back. And yet, the future of mankind, not only that of Europe, may depend upon this change.

"In the final analysis, we can only choose between changes which move us about like puppets and changes which we ourselves foresee and plan for."

As he spoke, I could not help feeling that men like Monnet would still manage to bring Europe out of the jungle of useless tradition. He knows where Europe has been and sees where this beleaguered continent can go—given the proper initiative and support.

"Why has Europe so often brought disaster upon itself and upon the world at large?" he asked. "Simply because in the past each nation applied its own rules. Each country did just as it pleased in accordance with the needs of its own national prestige. But in seeking to solve their problems in this way, countries were tempted into crossing their frontiers, those boundaries now red with the blood of so many victims of sovereignty, in an effort to dominate the others."

The man many consider to be one of the greatest living Europeans feels that if common institutions and rules had existed, if national sovereignties hadn't been so pronounced—or had been eliminated—Europe and the world would have been spared the catastrophes of the past four decades "Certainly, we accomplish nothing by setting one national sovereignty against another," he said.

Mr. Monnet likes to make analogies between Europe and the United States. "Wouldn't it be absurd," he asks, "if Texas was forever preparing for war against Mississippi, if California and New York each had its own currency, if there were tariff barriers between Pennsylvania and Ohio, and if citizens of North Carolina needed a passport to go to Georgia? Yet, that is precisely the type of thing Europeans have to contend with every day."

Like Messrs. Robert Schuman and Paul-Henri Spaak, Mr. Monnet stressed the belief that the European Coal and Steel Community is the concrete foundation for a European federation which is indispensable for the preservation of peace.

When talking about the achievements of the Schuman Plan, Mr. Monnet is a veritable walking encyclopedia. He throws facts and figures out with machine gun rapidity.

He noted that since the European Coal and Steel Community's inception in 1952, trade within the Community has increased appreciably, prices have been reduced, production of coal and steel has been increased more than 15 percent, and most customs barriers have been eliminated, creating what is in effect a common market of 160,000,000 consumers. In addition, the Community administers the first effective anti-trust laws in Europe and is abolishing cartels.

Also, the Schuman Plan's credit has been established on an international level, evidenced by the \$100,000,000 United States loan successfully negotiated recently in Washington, and special funds have been set inside for industrial research and for workers' housing.

Mr. Monnet is convinced that this Community, made up of institutions with powers to act delegated by the parliaments of the six countries, is the beginning of a new Europe.

"The European Defense Community is based upon exactly the same principles as the Coal and Steel Community," said Mr. Monnet. "Politically and psychologically, Europe needs a united army in order to make an effective contribution to the common defense."

In earnest, urgent tones, he told me of his hope that the parliaments will soon pass the treaty establishing the political entity of Europe.

Shifting almost imperceptibly from his precise English to the warmer tones of Cognac, France, his birthplace, he said, "The day you have these two achievements in Europe—a transfer of powers and sovereignty by the parliaments to common institutions, and European elections on the same day—you will, indeed, have established the essential foundations for the unity of Europe."

Recent Supreme Court Decisions: Lobbying

Isidore Starr

OBBYISTS—referred to euphemistically as "legislative agents" and regarded disparagingly as "the pressure boys"—have had a decidedly checkered history. This "Third House" of Congress has been instrumental in educating large segments of our population in the merits of legislation. Surely it is a useful and perfectly legitimate activity for representatives of professional, business, labor, and philanthropic groups to convey the views of their organizations to Congress.

However, with the great increase in lobbying activities after the Civil War and with the growing intensity of the propaganda drives, this practice has become a grave danger, in some instances, to the welfare of representative government. This seamy side of the picture has not been lacking in exposés. The investigations of the Temporary National Economic Committee¹ and the writings of Kenneth Crawford, Stuart Chase, and Karl Schriftgiesser, among others have done much to reveal the means used and the ends sought by these pullers of the legislative strings.8 In this category we find the instigators of letter and telegraph campaigns often based on misinformation and ignorance as to the facts; the supposedly mysterious men of powerful influence over our Congressman; and those who engage in practices of highly questionable legality.

THE FEDERAL REGULATION OF LOBBYING ACT

It was not until 1946 that the Congress decided to follow the precedents set by several of the states in passing a law which aims to identify the lobbies and to disclose the sources of their funds, the amount of their compensation, the nature of their employment, and their expenditures. By requiring registration procedures and the filing of periodic reports, it was the hope of our National Legislature that the Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act³ would preserve the good in lobbying and curtail the evils.

In United States v. Harriss et al., 347 U. S. 612 (1954), our Supreme Court was called upon to rule on the constitutionality of Sections 305, 307, 308, and 310 of the statute. Section 305 provides, among other things, that every person receiving or spending moneys for the purposes set forth in Section 307 must file with the Clerk of the House quarterly financial statements giving the following information: names and addresses of those who contributed \$500 or more during the calendar year; names and addresses of those to whom expenditures of \$10 or more are made, including the dates and purposes of these expenditures; and the total sum of all receipts and expenditures during the calendar year made by or on behalf of the persons filing the statements. Section 307 stipulates that the law is applicable to any person (except a political committee) who alone, or through others, in any manner whatsoever, directly or indirectly, solicits or collects

In this, the third in the 1954 series of articles on recent Supreme Court decisions, the author discusses two cases dealing with the problem of lobbying and "pressure groups."

Dr. Starr, who was awarded a John Hay Fellowship in the Humanities in 1952-1953, is the author of Human Rights in the United States, a publication of the Oxford Book Company. He is also a member of the Advisory Board of Social Education and a social studies teacher in the Technical High School of Brooklyn, New York.

³ Donald C. Blaisdell, *Economic Power and Political Pressures* (TNEC Monograph 26). Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

⁹ Title III of the Legislative Reorganization Act of 1946, 60 Stat. 812, 839; 2 U.S.C. 261-270. Public Law 601, 79th Cong., 2nd. Sess., Chap. 753.

^{*}Kenneth G. Crawford, The Pressure Boys. New York: Messner, 1939; Stuart Chase, Democracy Under Pressure: Special Interests versus the Public Welfare. New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1945; Karl Schriftgiesser, The Lobbyists: The Art and Business of Influencing Lawmakers. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1951.

money or any other thing of value to be used principally to influence the passage or the defeat of any legislation by Congress. Section 308 requires lobbyists-those who engage themselves for pay or any consideration to influence Congressional legislation-to file with the Clerk of the House and the Secretary of the Senate a registration statement giving their names and addresses, their employers, those whose interests they serve, the duration of employment and compensation therefore, including expenses. In addition, they are required to submit sworn quarterly financial statements of compensation (including expenses) and expenditures; they must specify any payments made to newspapers and periodicals; and they must identify the legislation which they have been employed to support or oppose.4 The enumerated exceptions to this provision are public officials acting in their official capacity, those who merely appear at committee hearings, and newspapers which comment on legislation in the ordinary course of their business.

Section 310 makes a violation of this statute a misdemeanor punishable by a fine of not more than \$5,000 and imprisonment for not more than one year, or both. In addition, the section provides that those convicted are prohibited, for three years from the date of conviction, "from attempting to influence, directly, or indirectly, the passage or defeat of any proposed legislation or from appearing before a committee of the Congress in support of or opposition to proposed legislation." Violators of this prohibition are guilty of a felony punishable by a \$10,000 fine, or five years' imprisonment, or both.

THE MAJORITY OPINION

The Government brought action against four party for violating the Act. A Texas corporation was charged with failure to report the solicitation and receipt of contributions to influence the passage of legislation which would cause a rise in the prices of agricultural commodities and to defeat proposals which would cause a decline in farm prices. A New York cotton broker and a Washington commodity trader were accused of failure to report payments to other persons who were to communicate vis-à-vis with members of

The defendants presented a threefold argument. First, Sections 305, 307, and 308 are too vague and indefinite under the due process of law requirement of the Fifth Amendment. Second, Sections 305 and 308 violate the First Amendment guarantees of freedom of speech, press, and petition. And finally, the penalty provision violates the right of the people under the First Amendment to petition the Government.

In a five to three decision (Justice Clark did not take part) the Supreme Court upheld the validity of Sections 305, 307, and 308. Chief Justice Warren, writing for the majority, disposed of the charge of vagueness and indefiniteness in this way. It is a basic principle that the Court must try to construe Congressional enactments so as to avoid the danger of unconstitutionality. Here the problem is not a difficult one if we construe lobbying in its commonly accepted sense-"direct communication with members of Congress on pending or proposed legislation." With this as a basis, the rest is easy. Section 907 is controlling, since it identifies the person who comes within the purview of the statute. As the Court puts it:

To summarize, therefore, there are three prerequisites to coverage under Sec. 307: (1) the "person" must have solicited, collected, or received contributions; (2) one of the main purposes of such "person," or one of the main purposes of such contributions, must have been to influence the passage or defeat of legislation by Congress; (3) the intended method of a accomplishing this purpose must have been through direct communication with members of Congress.

The Government had argued that a person must report expenditures, even though he did not solicit, collect, or receive contributions. This interpretation of the Act is untenable, the Court ruled, because it overlooks the fact that Section 307 is basic to an understanding of the law. As a matter of fact, Section 307 circumscribes the other sections, so that solicitation, collection, or receipt of money or other thing of value is a prerequisite to coverage under the statutes.

As for the defendant's argument that the statute is characterized by such vague phrases as "the principal purpose," "to be used principally," and "to influence legislation," the majority of the Court replied that these words reasonably interpreted aim to exclude contributions and

Congress and to divulge expenditures for a letter-writing campaign on farm legislation. The same commodity trader and a Georgia state official were charged with having failed to register as lobbyists.

⁴More than 2,000 lobbyists have registered under the law and approximately 500 organizations have been filing financial statements of contributions and expenditures. The Constitution of the United States: Analysis and Interpretation. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1955. p. 810.

activities which have only an "incidental" purpose of influencing legislation. It is obvious that the Act encompasses contributions and activities which play a substantial part in determining the fate of legislation through direct communication with Congress. Under such a construction of the law a person of ordinary intelligence is given what may be considered fair notice of the type of forbidden conduct.

Secondly, Sections 305, and 308 do not violate the freedom of speech, press, and petition guaranteed by the First Amendment. Congress, noted the Chief Justice, does not seek to abolish lobbying. Its primary purpose is the disclosure of the direct pressures "exerted by the lobbyists themselves or through their hirelings or through an artificially stimulated letter campaign." Congress wants to know—and is entitled to know in the interests of self-protection—who is being hired, who is putting up the money, and how much. This information, as in the case of the Federal Corrupt Practices Act, is necessary to maintain the integrity of representative government.

Is it not reasonable to suppose that the Lobbying Act might act as a deterrent not only to legitimate lobbying activities, but also to the exercise of the rights of free speech, press, and petition on the part of private citizens with reference to pending legislation? To this, the Court replied:

. . . Hypothetical borderline situations are conjured up in which such persons choose to remain silent because of fear of possible prosecution for failure to comply with the Act. Our narrow construction of the Act, precluding as it does reasonable fears, is calculated to avoid such restraint. But, even assuming some such deterrent effect, the restraint is at most an indirect one resulting from self-censorship, comparable in many ways to the restraint resulting from criminal libel laws. The hazard of such restraint is too remote to require striking down a statute which on its face is otherwise within the area of congressional power and is designed to safeguard a vital national interest.

The majority saw no need to rule on the constitutionality of the penal provision which barred convicted violators from attempting to influence legislation for a period of three years. Since this penalty has as yet not been applied, there is no need to pass on its constitutionality. This is in the Supreme Court tradition of refusing to hand down advisory opinions. However, even if it should later be found to be invalid, it can be separated from the statute, since the latter includes a separability clause. Of course, in any event, the law does stipulate the perfectly legitimate penalty of fine and imprisonment.

THE DISSENTING OPINIONS

Justice Douglas's dissent was concurred in by Justice Black. He found the law so vague and indefinite that it "can easily ensnare people who have done no more than exercise their constitutional rights of speech, assembly, and press." What, he asks, is meant by such terms as "legislation," "directly or indirectly," "the principal purpose," and "direct communication with Congress." He concludes with this warning:

The language of the Act is so broad that one who writes a letter or makes a speech or publishes an article or distributes literature or does many of the other things with which appellees are charged has no fair notice when he is close to the prohibited line. No construction we give it today will make clear retroactively the vague standards that confronted appellees when they did the acts now charged against them as criminal. . . . Since the Act touches on the exercise of First Amendment rights, and is not narrowly drawn to meet precise evils, its vagueness has some of the evils of a continuous and effective restraint.

Justice Jackson's dissenting opinion also argues that the law is "mischievously vague." Under the interpretation of the majority he who merely expends money for the purpose of lobbying does not come within the coverage of the Act. Surely, more serious evils affecting the public interest may come from this activity. Although a liberal interpretation of a statute is often justified to save it from the limbo of invalidity, there is nothing in this law which offers guidance in differentiating between the benefits of the constitutional right to petition and the evils of professional lobbying. What is needed, asserts Justice Jackson, is a new, more carefully drafted piece of legislation.

LOBBYING AND FREEDOM OF THE PRESS

A clue as to the manner in which the Court may interpret problems arising under the Lobbying Act can be seen in United States v. Rumely, 345 U.S. 41 (1953). The defendant and the Committee for Constitutional Government, of which he was the secretary, had both registered as lobbyists. The House Select Committee on Lobbying Activities (Buchanan Committee), acting under a House resolution authorizing the investigation of "all lobbying activities intended to influence, encourage, promote, or retard legislation," began an inquiry into the activities of the defendant. Two matters attracted the interest of the House Committee. The defendant and his organization were engaged in sending free of charge to members of Congress and to others books of a "particular political tendentiousness." And, in the

second place, it was alleged that the defendant was trying to circumvent the provision of the Lobbying Law which required registered organizations to divulge the names and amounts of contributors of \$500 or more. It was charged that the defendant adopted a policy of accepting contributions over \$490 only if the contributor specified that such amount be used for the distribution of its books and pamphlets. Such contributions were thereupon listed as "sales" and were not reported under the law. When the Buchanan Committee ordered the defendant to divulge the names of those whose contributions were made in the form of bulk book and pamphlet purchases for distribution to others, he refused and was cited for contempt.

The Court was of the unanimous opinion (Justices Burton and Minton did not take part) that the contempt citation was unjustified. Justice Frankfurter's opinion for the Court posed the problem as the traditional and fundamental one between the rights of the First Amendment and the powers of Congress—in this case, the power of Congress to investigate, a power which underlies its policy-making functions. However, the Court resolved it all by giving the term "lobbying activities," a restricted scope. It was de-

fined as "representations made directly to the Congress, its members or its Committees." With this limitation on the powers of the Buchanan Committee, it becomes obvious that it had no authority to require the defendant to divulge the names of the contributors and the amounts in question. It may be obvious that the defendant's mailing of books was with the specific intent of "saturating the thinking of the community," but this is his right under the First Amendment and it does not fall within the authority of the House Committee as defined by the resolution. However, intimates Justice Frankfurter, a Congressional resolution worded differently might possibly have extended the scope of the Committee's power to cover activities in which the defendant was engaged.

Justice Douglas, in his concurring opinion (with which Justice Black agreed), goes much further than Justice Frankfurter. He states categorically that the defendant's activities are well within the shield of the First Amendment, and hence immune from Congressional action.

From these two cases, it is reasonable to infer that the Court will tend to interpret rather strictly any problem arising under the Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act.

INTERESTING PERSONALITIES

"'Mr. Dooley' (Finley Peter Dunne) was at his prime in the late nineties and early nineteen hundreds. His mechanism for weekly instalments of humorous philosophy about the news was composed of two characters, a Chicago saloonkeeper, 'Mr. Dooley,' and his friend 'Mr. Hennissy.' . . .

"Mr. Hennissy's role was restricted to merely the obvious, the brief, the completely serious, the appropriate remark to lead Mr. Dooley on. He would utter the perfunctory formality his friend's observation seemed to call for: 'The Lord save us fr'm harm.' Then Mr. Dooley would be off. . . .

"Of the acrimoniousness of politics in America during the nineties Mr. Dooley said: 'If ye ar-re a tired la-ad an' wan without much fight in ye, livin' in this counthry is like thryin' to read th' Lives iv the Saints at a meetin' iv th' Clan-na-Gael.' Of Senator Beveridge's oratory he said: 'Ye could waltz to it.' When Roosevelt wrote an appreciative book about the experiences of himself

and his Rough Rider regiment in the Spanish War, Mr. Dooley said: 'If I was him I'd call th' book "Alone in Cubia."' At another place Dooley suggested as titles: 'Th' Biography iv a Hero be Wan who Knows'; 'Th' Darin' Exploits iv a Brave Man be an Actual Eye-Witness, th' Account iv th' Destruction iv Spanish Power in th' Ant Hills, as it fell fr'm th' lips iv Teddy Rosenfelt an' was took down be his own hands.'

"Mr. Dooley was not only a popular but a definitely useful institution to a whole generation of American life. To the people he supplied true philosophy, wisdom, compact common sense; to the public characters he supplied the corrective of satire, which the latter accepted, and were grateful for. . . ."

(Quoted from Mark Sullivan, The Turn of the Century, Part I of Our Times, p. 204-206. Reprinted with the permission of the publisher, Charles Scribner's Sons.)

Medical Economics in the United States

Max Seham, M.D.

THE confusing rapidity with which "the old order changeth" is sometimes too rapid for some parts of society; and organized medicine is a good example. For years it has tried to live and function behind a wall of professional seclusion. Superbly trained in its own disciplines, but often illiterate in the social sciences which have made such vast contributions to medicine, it has refused or resented the assistance of social allies in the solution of the difficult, complex problems that are today prime in medical practice, the problems of medical or health economics.

The dike behind which organized medicine has tried to hide has long ago been breached. Whether physicians like it or not, they can no longer bury their heads. The revolutionary changes in American medicine in the last 50 years have forced them into a new era of medical economics.

But many of them haven't yet seen what has been happening all around them. Perhaps this is understandable among the younger men. But to one who has practiced for 40 years, it is difficult to accept.

Most of us private practitioners have taken deep pride in the dramatic advances in diagnosis, prevention, and treatment of disease that the first half of the twentieth century has seen. There has never been anything like it.

When I first began to apply the oath of Hippocrates in behalf of the sick, the tools of diagnosis at my disposal were crude and primitive, in contrast to the multitude of ingenious devices in use today. The gun-shot remedies were largely placebos, now fortunately replaced by the specific antibiotics and preventive vaccines. The lonely general practitioner of yesterday now has the support of about 20 specialized medical groups and an equally large number of technically trained non-medical groups.

This is the plus side of the health ledger. To get the complete picture, we must look carefully at the minus columns. This reveals a wide gap between our rich medical resources and our technological know-how on the one side, and their utilization for the benefit of the majority of the people, on the other. Just as surpluses of potatoes and grain were at one time dumped into open spaces, for some inexplicable reasons, bottlenecks prevent the adequate delivery of medical services to all the people in all parts of the country. What Dr. William Welch said 20 years ago, needs to be repeated today: "We know how to do a lot of things which we don't do, or do on a wretchedly small scale."

A LOOK INTO THE PAST

It is not within the scope of this article to offer solutions to this complex and involved problem. This article is concerned with the socioeconomic medical forces of the past responsible for the present, for it is only by getting a historical perspective that we shall ever be able to project far-seeing, just and sound programs for the future. As Winston Churchill said, "The longer you look back into the past, the further you can look forward."

What was American Medicine like a hundred years ago? The first population census, taken in the last decade of the eighteenth century accounted for about 4,000,000 people. It was limited to the Atlantic seaboard. Ninety percent of the people lived in rural communities of less than 2500. Farm life was hard, but the farmer had no problems of unemployment or wages. The family cared for its own in illness, and in old age. In the absence of a town doctor, the family depended upon whatever herb was popular at

[&]quot;It occurs to me," the author writes, "that the majority of Americans are in need of a knowledge of the past in order better to cope with the health situation today." Dr. Scham is a practicing pediatrician in Minneapolis and Clinical Professor of Pediatrics at the University of Minnesota Medical School.

that time in that particular area; the town idiot became a harmless fixture, neither diagnosed nor treated. Grandfather rocked on the front porch listening to the hardening of his arteries. The family doctor was a rugged individualist using the term in the best sense. He belonged to the high priesthood. He charged his own sliding scale of fees. The distribution of medical services, such as it was, was equitable. The poor and the rich shared alike the known facilities of medicine. If the patient could not afford to pay, he was served free, or perhaps he gave the doctor the necessities of life in trade, a relationship which many of us experienced during the depression. During epidemics the doctor did heroic things in behalf of the people, often sacrificing his life. The personal liberties which the early settlers so zealously guarded were extended to medical care. Benjamin Franklin wrote in his famous almanac "Man's health is his own business and he could do with it as he pleased."

The doctor of that day had no scientific techniques for accurate diagnosis. He depended entirely upon his five senses and prolonged experience. His period of apprenticeship, which was similar to that of any artisan, was short. While serving it, he was also assisting his precepter in his daily rounds. The state did not regulate the practice of medicine and anyone who was acceptable to the already established doctor could become his assistant. Many set up in practice without any training. Because of the close personal relationship with the family, the doctor became familiar with the social, economic, and hereditary advantages or disadvantages of each patient. Without realizing it, he practiced psychosomatic medicine and probably got good results in minor psychiatry. In other words, he was a general counselor on all matters relating directly or indirectly to all that was then known about health and disease. In those days the private practitioner practiced the social medicine of the era.

Because of the lack of standards and scientific knowledge, medical cults grew like mushrooms. They became as numerous as political parties in France today. At one period there were as many as 20 different cults. On the other hand, there were the self-named regulars or the "middle of the roaders." Endowed with more critical faculties, they rejected the most commonly accepted view of Benjamin Rush who, in his day, was the most successful of the private practitioners. His theory of disease was that there was "only a single disease consisting of different forms of morbid

excitements induced by irritations acting on previous debility."

Among the cultists (to mention only a few) were: the Botanics, the Theoretical, Practical, Experimental Dogmatical, Emblematical, Electrical, Magnetical, Homeopathians, Rootists, Herbists, and Florists. The names reflect the method of treatment. There were many others who had their names attached to their cults. There were even Phrenologists, Mesmerizers, and Hydropaths, and some flourished just as chiropracters and osteopaths flourish today in certain parts of the country. As they flourished, the prestige of the profession reached a dangerously low ebb. As a commentary of the attitude of the public towards the medical profession, Thomas Jefferson made the statement: "He, the doctor, establishes for his guide some fanciful theory of corpuscular attraction, of chemical agency, of mechanical powers, of stimuli, of irritability, accumulated or exhausted, of depletion by the lancet, and repletion by mercury, or some other ingenious dream, which lets him into all nature's secrets at short hand. On the principle which he thus assumed, he forms his table of nosology, arrays his diseases into families, and extends his curative medicine by analogy, to all the cases he has thus arbitrarily marshalled together."

The very life of the medical profession hung on a thin thread. Agitation for reforms from within for elimination of the "irregulars" spread over the country. The first response to this urgent situation was made in Illinois with the formation of the first state medical society. Doctors began to write under such titles as "To what cause are we to attribute our diminished respectability in the estimation of the American public?"

The humanitarian and the skeptical members of the profession were aroused into action, because they were convinced that "hundreds of our fellow citizens are annually sacrificed by the empirical prescriptions of charlatan professors by rude and unskilled hands." For some years they carried Jefferson's slogan: "Not only a reformation in medicine is necessary, but a revolution." Alarmed by such trends and by the mounting public distrust, medical leaders organized new societies, founded medical journals and adopted codes of ethics. These were the seeds from which the A. M. A. officially sprang in 1847.

THE ERA OF BACTERIOLOGY

The turning point in the prestige of the medical profession came with the advent of bacteriology. Although Edward Jenner was not a bacteriologist, his discovery of vaccination against smallpox was one of the first rational attempts at specific immunization. It was Pasteur who laid the corner stone of modern bacteriology with his theory that certain diseases were due to invasion of the human body by microorganisms.

Although at first the medical profession refused to accept his ideas, it was not long before truth overcame the natural conservatism to new ideas, and the superstitions about vapors, humors, and diatheses as causes of disease became obsolete. Stimulated by Pasteur's research, Lister conducted studies of wounds and made possible the practice of antiseptic surgery. The famous Dr. Koch announced his discovery of the tubercule bacillus in 1882, and two years later that of Asiatic cholera. Neiser discovered the gonococcus, Laveran the parasite of malaria, Klebs diphtheria, Von Behring first used diphtheria antitoxin, Loos in 1898 discovered hookworm, and Reed and Finlay made possible the dramatic work of General Gorgas at Panama. These are only a few of the most noteworthy names and their memorable contributions to mankind.

From then on Bacteriology marched on with seven league boots. In quick succession one bacterium after another was isolated and identified as a specific cause of disease. As Dr. Cushing said, this quick succession was "like the corn popping in a pan." These advances in bacteriology affected private practice as well as preventive medicine. For with the dicovery of specific causes of diseases, measures for control, and later specific immunization, were available to private practitioners.

THE BEGINNING OF SOCIAL MEDICINE

While scientists were burning the candles at both ends, looking into microscopes and culture media, social statisticians and many other nonmedical social workers began to accumulate a wealth of information on all social and economic factors responsible for diseases.

Before long many reports and monographs appeared on housing, sanitation, topography, food customs, poverty, labor conditions, and so forth, revealing the close relationship between environment, health, and disease. Influenced by the irrefutable mass of facts and figures reported by Villerme of Paris and Chadwick of London, the A.M.A., which had just come into being, began similar investigations in American cities.

In 1850 the classical report of Shattuck of Boston shocked the public into a realization that the prevention of disease could not be successful

unless and until the people in general were able to secure better housing, better food, and better working conditions. For the first time, by the use of the statistical method, the effects of mass immigration, poverty, bad food, poor housing and bad working conditions upon the health of workers were backed up by facts and figures. The whole country was aroused, and in each community groups of laymen, working hand in hand with doctors and public health officials, forgetting their political and vested interests, rolled up their communal sleeves and took direct action against these enemies of the people. In this attack upon the common enemy, it must be recorded that the medical profession, both individually and through its national organization, lived up to its responsibility in the best Hippocratic tradition. City and State Boards of Health were created after a struggle to educate the public.

THE IMPACT OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Another decisive impact upon social medicine came through the rapid urbanization of the people, especially in the larger cities. In frontier days more than two-thirds of the people lived in rural areas. The rapid development of the west and the revolutionary growth of industry between 1850 and 1900 brought a vast stream of impoverished immigrants from Europe. The millions of new workers helped to increase production, but this was not an unmixed blessing, especially on the eastern seaboard, for slums grew like poisonous mushrooms and the growing factories became foci of many preventable diseases and occupational hazards.

Workers in mines, in smelters, and on railroads demanded more adequate protection from industrial accidents. The medical resources of industry were insufficient, and the medical needs of the families of employees were neglected. The health conditions of thousands of workers became so flagrantly bad that for its own protection management hired medical personnel to establish what is now known as industrial medi-

Survey after survey by disinterested experts revealed that illness hit hardest among the groups least able to meet the cost of medical care. The poorer the family, the less care it received.

Periodically, every new industry brought forth its new health problems. The many industrial hazards, created dangerous situations to the worker and at the same time, created potential losses to the employer in decreased productivity. The health protection of labor, the creation of safe working conditions, of clean and healthy factory atmosphere, became one of the primary tasks of medicine, and has remained so since. These were not strictly medical problems, but involved the cooperation of social scientists and engineers.

THE ROLE OF GOVERNMENT

During the latter part of the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth century, with the exception of the Army and Navy, the federal government played a relatively minor role in social medicine. Most medical services were supplied by private practitioners, private institutions, voluntary agencies and local governments. The federal government, during this era, followed the precept of Abe Lincoln "that government is best which governs least." Gradually, because of rapidly expanding industry, the demands of organized labor, natural catastrophies, economic depressions and the growth of humanitarianism, some of these functions inevitably were taken over, first by the states, and then by the federal government. There is no basis in fact for the common opinion that government took over by edict or for political reasons. Our founding fathers had the foresight to write in the Constitution a provision which gave Congress the power to levy and to collect taxes and to "provide for the common defense and general welfare." This gave the federal government the power to provide medical services and hospitalization financed by both a payroll-tax and a general tax for certain self-supporting classes. In order to protect our human resources and improve the public welfare, the federal government began to broaden its activities to include medical care programs. The people began to lose faith in the laissez faire philosophy as it applied to social medicine. Admittedly, the many churches and various health organizations, private and voluntary, medical and lay, rendered invaluable service in behalf of the health of the people. But these agencies were unable to cope adequately with the problem on a national level. Most of their activities were limited to the larger cities. There was no integration or over-all planning. They were subject to the whims and wishes of the individual philanthropist or voluntary agencies. It soon became clear that only with government help, either through general taxation or through grants-in-aid to states, could there be any hope to solve, on a national level, such problems as tuberculosis, infant and maternal mortality,

venereal diseases, physical handicaps, mental illness, diseases of old age, and others.

The decade between 1910 and 1920 marked the first period in the formulation of health legislation. Legislative measures to decrease maternal and infant mortality were enacted by Congress. State Workmen's Compensation laws were passed, first by New York State, and soon after by other states. The first comprehensive compulsory health program was fostered by the American Federation of Labor in 1916, but was buried in an avalanche of opposition. Then came the depression of 1929, which overnight rendered the country almost impotent in the face of the emergency health needs.

WE HAVE short memories, indeed, if we have forgotten what happened during the depression. Who can forget the idle factories, the millions of unemployed, including the medical personnel, and the poverty which produced widespread deficiencies in diet, neglect of teeth, and the postponement of necessary treatment of disease. Without government cooperation, private physicians and voluntary health agencies would have reached an impasse and the foundation of the country's health might have been destroyed. Thousands of destitute farmers, unemployed workers and their families were furnished free medical care out of general taxes. In spite of all the dire predictions, when the emergency was over, the government withdrew and the dire prophecy that the medical profession would be enslaved, proved to be false.

Unfortunately, it took a social catastrophe as great as the depression to arouse the country from its complacency and lethargy to remove the bottlenecks in health economics. President Hoover appointed a Commission to study this vital problem with Dr. Wilbur, his Secretary of the Interior, as chairman. After three years of intensive study (1929 to 1932), the majority report revealed serious defects in the system of distribution of medical services. It agreed on plans that were a compromise between the system of private practice and limited state medicine. It proposed extension of public health group practice. It urged better planning and organization, and extensive use of the insurance principle to distribute more equitably the uneven and unpredictable costs of medical care.

In an editorial appearing in the December, 1932, issue of the American Medical Association Journal, the A.M.A. attacked the majority report, denouncing it as "socialism and commu-

nism inciting to revolution." As an alternate solution, they endorsed sickness insurance through commercial companies. The gauntlet thrown down by the A.M.A. in 1932 set off a coldwar which is still being waged. This, however, is a different chapter in the history of American medicine.

IT SEEMS clear to me, a practicing physician, that medical economics has come to be what it is through the many eventful discoveries in the medical science and the inevitable process of gradual adjustment and adaptation to social and economic changes.

First of all, the scientific renaissance gave birth to the era of bacteriology, which in turn led to the discoveries of the causes of diseases and their specific prevention and treatment. The other physical and biological sciences made equally life-saving contributions. While these scientific developments were taking place, social and economic changes were also transforming society. The Industrial Revolution, the increasing demands of organized labor for more adequate health and medical services, the general inflation pushing up the increased costs of medical and hospital care, the rapid increase in specialization and skills, the natural catastrophes in certain parts of the country, the economic depression and the surging tide of scientific humanitarianism—all of these, piecemeal, here and there, by trial and error, are among the social catalysts which are responsible for our present problems in medical economics.

It is time organized medicine realized what has happened, and began to take steps to bring its social and economic adjustment level with its magnificent technology.

THE CONSTITUTION IN ACTION

(By Doris R. Brosnan, Social Studies Teacher in Sewanhaka High School in Floral Park, New York)

OST of us, when we explain the meaning of the Constitution, are plagued with the question of how we can present the full meaning with "true-life" experiences in order that the student will understand the topic. The project here described resulted from several terms of trial and success. The classes in American History evaluated the project, and in their opinion this endeavor proved to be of value in the understanding of our Constitution.

The aim of the project is to help the student understand how the Constitution functions in everyday life. More specifically, it is expected that the project will give students a clearer understanding of the important provisions of the Constitution, and strengthen their ability to apvalue in the understanding of our Constitution.

THE PROJECT

While studying each section of the Constitution, each student was required to read the daily newspaper and cut out all items that referred to Congress, the President, or the Supreme Court and its functions. The object was to illustrate as many sections of the Constitution as we possibly could so that each section might be more meaningful. Once the project was under way, the superior student was challenged not only to read the papers but to consult old magazines that were in his home and bring in the clippings. Others went to the library to check the *Congressional Quarterly* for certain laws and to see how they applied.

It was decided that a minimum of 30 clippings would be sufficient for each individual project. The newspaper articles were mounted on a single sheet of paper with headings listing the source of the article, the date, the number of the article, and the section of the Constitution to which the clipping referred. The entire project was arranged similarly to the United States Constitution, and whenever possible the amendment as well as parts of the unwritten Constitution were illustrated. This was definitely not a "cut and paste" proposition. Students said they really learned a great deal about the full meaning of the Constitution as they presented their daily illustrations. The time limit for the project was approximately twelve weeks.

As a result of this project, some students expressed a desire to examine the constitution of their student government and evaluate it in comparison with the United States Constitution.

The Jewish Tercentenary in New York

Albert Alexander

HIS year's tercentenary of the landing of the first Jew in New Amsterdam (August 22, 1654), while it represents only a fragment of the long and dramatic history of the Jews, is a reminder that for the Jew in New York the first hundred years were really the hardest.

When Jacob Barsimson, the first Jewish settler, arrived in New Amsterdam aboard de Pereboom he added to the cosmopolitan flavor of the little city where some 18 languages were spoken. In an age when religious intolerance resulted in inferior legal status, physical punishments, and even expulsion, Barsimson was fortunate in coming to a city ruled by the Dutch-a people who in their homeland had made considerable advances in religious tolerance. He came unmolested, carrying a passport issued by the owners of the colony (the Dutch West India Company), and no objection was made to his staying.

That same summer some additional Jews came from the mother country. They were merchants and traders whose agreements with the Company permitted them to "exercise their rights" in a community that had already established a fair

reputation as a trading center.

Shortly after this settlement, on September 7, 1654, 23 Jews put into New Amsterdam. They were destitute after fleeing persecution in Brazil (which the less tolerant Portuguese had captured from the Dutch). To add to their misfortune, they had been waylaid by pirates. Thus what was to have been a trip to Holland became "destination New Amsterdam" when a French ship intercepted the pirate vessel and transported the hapless passengers to New Amsterdam.

A struggling young colony never takes too kindly to the public charges already in its midst, and it certainly is never too eager to acquire additional dependents. Such was the situation when those 29 arrived, challenging the hospitality of the Dutch. Needless to say, their reception was not cordial. Governor Peter Stuyvesant was most vehement in denouncing them. The deaconry, among other reasons "feared their becoming a public charge," and a local order was issued commanding them to leave. Keeping in mind the bigotry of the times, and the harsh treatment accorded the poor even of one's own community, Stuyvesant's admonition that they be allowed "to depart in a friendly way" shows some advance along the road to human decency.

Fortunately, the Governor's ouster edict was soon overruled by the Directors of the Dutch West India Company. Thanks to a petition by the Jewish community of Holland, the Company directed Stuyvesant to allow the Jews to remain. The letter to the Governor frankly admitted economic reasons for this decision: many of the stockholders were Jewish. Holland, with its moderate prosperity also failed to stimulate emigration in any great numbers and therefore care had to be exercised lest other immigrants be discouraged. And, to the credit of the Dutch, the tolerance of Holland (which made it practically the only European place of refuge for the Jew in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) was bound to brush off on its New World colony.

It was not the policy at New Amsterdam, however, to grant many of today's ordinary privileges to Jews, or, for that matter, to Lutherans, Quakers, or Catholics. During the entire period of Dutch rule only the Dutch Reformed Church (Calvinist) was granted a legal position. All others (except Catholics, who were subjected to repressive measures throughout the entire Colonial period) were merely tolerated, mainly to encourage immigration.

In addition to religious difficulties, retail trade was at first denied to the Jews. By being forced to turn to the export trade, they filled a need and

Three hundred years ago, the first Jewish settlers arrived in New Amsterdam. In this article, Mr. Alexander, who teaches social studies in Brooklyn Technical High School, gives us some of the background for the celebration of the Jewish Tercentenary being held in New York during the winter of 1954-1955.

in turn stimulated trade among the colonies and abroad. Although they paid the inevitable taxes, the Jews were denied the privilege of holding real estate. Again, intervention by the Directors remedied this situation. However, for the privilege of complying with life's other inevitability—death—it was not necessary to seek the help of the Directors: although a petition for a burial ground had been refused, when the need arose the authorities granted a lot outside the City—where Oliver Street now stands.

In the various documents of the time, it is interesting to note that the Jews were addressed as members of the Portuguese nation. While it is true that the majority were of this derivation, it nevertheless is also a fact that this early Jewish community was divided into two groups: The German or Ashkenazic, and the Portuguese or

Sephardic strain.

By the time the Dutch administration had ended in 1664 the Jews had obtained some important concessions and rights unequaled in any other part of the world. They were, however, still refused employment in public service; they were not permitted to operate retail shops, and they could not worship publicly.

Since immigration fell off sharply, the Jewish population only moderately increased during English rule. However, by the time of the Revolution the Jews had succeeded in obtaining full civil rights and in building a firm foundation of religious liberty for the greater community that

was to follow.

Public worship was a right soon extended by the English rulers. As early as 1682 a Jewish meeting house was constructed on Mill Street, but it was not until 1686, when James II sent instructions to New York to "permit any peaceful religionists freedom," that public services could legally be conducted. Some years later secret instructions to Governor Sloughter directed that "Liberty of Conscience should be given to all Persons (except Papists)."

It was not long thereafter that Jews took advantage of these liberal terms. It is certain that by 1695 a synagogue was erected at Beaver Street by the Congregation Shearith Israel—a congregation still active today. A new synagogue on Mill Street (also called Jews' Alley) was consecrated in 1730. By 1750 its rolls listed almost 60 members, making the total Jewish population about 300 in a city that held 13,000 souls of other faiths. (It is estimated that there were 1500

Jews in all the colonies at this time.)

Other privileges followed: Naturalization, which by the Act of 1663 had been limited to Christians, was by a General Assembly Act of 1727 amended to include Jews. While there is some dispute as to whether or not Jews were permitted to vote under the English, evidence seems to indicate that they did enjoy this privilege. Early in the period of English rule the names of Jewish residents appeared on the rolls of "freemen." This also marked a triumph, since the English had passed a law which made freemanship the requirement for engaging in certain trades within the city limits.

Peter Kalm, the famous Swedish traveler, passing through New York in 1748, observed that "the Jews enjoy all the privileges in common to the other inhabitants of this town and province." While his observations were accurate as far as civil rights and economic position were concerned, the legal and social status of the Jews in colonial times failed to keep pace with the other changes. Still, the picture painted by Peter Kalm was one of solid achievement, from unsteady tolerance to eventual religious freedom.

UNFORGETTABLE AUTHORS

Pico della Mirandola (1463-1494), humanist and philosopher and one of the leading scholars of the Italian Renaissance, wrote the following words in his essay, On the Dignity of Man.

"God took man as a creature of indeterminate nature and, assigning him a place in the middle of the world, addressed him thus: 'Neither fixed abode nor a form that is thine alone nor any function peculiar to thyself have we given thee, Adam; to the end that according to thy longing and according to thy judgement thou mayest have and possess what abode, what form, and

what functions thou thyself shalt desire. The nature of all other things is limited and constrained within the bounds of laws prescribed by us. Thou, constrained by no limits . . . shalt ordain for thyself the limits of thy nature. . . As the maker and molder of thyself, thou mayest fashion thyself in whatever shape thou shalt prefer. Thou shalt have the power to degenerate into lower forms of life, which are brutish. Thou shalt have the power, out of they soul and judgement to be reborn into the higher forms, which are divine.'"

Biography in the Social Studies: A Series for the Senior High School

Ralph A. Brown and Marian R. Brown

N THE first two articles in this series, the authors traced the use of biographical materials in the schools and wrote of the values to be realized through the use of such books. In two later articles they described several of the series prepared for the middle grades and the junior high school. We turn now to a series of books designed for the upper years of the senior high school. Biographies for this age group are difficult to find, and unless an interest has been previously established it is most certainly difficult to arouse at this age. Yet in terms of the reading and thinking habits of adult citizens, it is most important that this age group be exposed to the decisions, the forces and the personalities that have shaped the kind of nation in which we live.

The McGraw-Hill Book Company of 330 West 42nd Street, New York, has introduced a series of biographies entitled *They Made America*. Each volume in this series is priced at \$3.00 and contains in the neighborhood of 250 pages. Each contains illustrations and an index; most of them have lists for further reading.

Designed to appeal to the student in the senior high school, these volumes will also prove interesting to superior students in the junior high—that 5 percent of the school population so often ignored in our planning and our purchase of materials, but so important in terms of tomorrow's leadership. Many of the volumes in this series will prove fascinating to the adult reader. This fact should impress the classroom teacher with the realization that the young people of senior high age are attracted by the same action, vivid characterization and clarity of style in

their reading material as has always appealed to adults.

One of the outstanding volumes of the McGraw-Hill series is written by Arthur C. Parker. Of Indian descent and recognized nationally as a student and scholar of the Indian past, Dr. Parker has written the biography of a remarkable leader in Red Jacket, Last of the Seneca. Born in 1750, and at the age of ten given the name of Otetiani or "Always Ready," this Indian boy became one of the great orators and philosophers of the Six Nations. In his thirties he was awarded the title Sagoyewatha, "He keeps them awake." The name "Red Jacket" by which he was known in later life, was never an official title, but was a nickname based on his fondness for a red coat given him by the British.

The book opens with a detailed and colorful description of life in the Iroquois territory in the mid-eighteenth century. Here are the events of boyhood, the legends, the common life of the village. The author then follows Red Jacket through the bitter years of the American Revolution and through the period of slow but continuous encroachment on Indian lands by the White Man. Red Jacket had great intelligence and a keen insight in regard to people and situations. He also had weaknesses: intolerance, a disregard for the wishes of others, vanity, consuming ambition. By way of summary, Dr. Parker notes that "Red Jacket more than any other man of his time challenged the sincerity of our civilization, and by his criticism he lifted a mirror to its face. . . ." The book is outstanding for its vivid and authentic description and its splendid style.

WHILE not all the other volumes in this series rank, in the present writers' opinion, with Dr. Parker's volume, they are all excellent books, far superior to most of the reading materials available for this age group. Walter Havighurst's George Rogers Clark, Soldier in the West is the life of one of the more intriguing figures in the American Revolution. Clark was

This is the fifth in the series of articles prepared for Social Education by Dr. Marian R. Brown and Dr. Ralph A. Brown, both of whom are associated with the State University Teachers College at Cortland, New York.

only twenty-four when he was charged with the defense of the Kentucky country at the outbreak of the Revolution. The manner in which he accepted that responsibility, the brilliance and the daring with which he turned from the defense to the offense, remains one of the most glorious pages in our history, and is well known. His long years of personal defeat, frustration and disappointment are seldom emphasized and familiarity with them will help to make Clark a real person as well as a hero to young people. The author is a brilliant craftsman, and his descriptions, his use of detail, and his characterizations are all fine.

Most Americans with some knowledge of our western expansion associate the name of Stephen Austin with Texas—yet there is little real understanding or knowledge of the man. In Stephen F. Austin, Father of Texas, Carleton Beals tells the full story of this man and his role in the settlement of the American West. This is a story of constant work, danger, frustration and near failure. The task of administering the American colony would have been tremendous under the best of conditions. Austin had to contend with Indians, undesirable would-be settlers, the vagaries of nature and, most difficult of all, the constantly vacillating, unpredictable Mexican governments.

The life story of one of the more dynamic and colorful figures of the young American Republic is told in Alexander Hamilton, Nation Builder. Mr. Schachner proves that in addition to being a top-notch adult biographer he also has the knack of writing for young people. The descriptions are excellent and there is a sureness and a sensitivity to the way in which he handles his material. The text is exciting and full of glamor.

In extra-class materials as well as in textbooks, the social and cultural history of our country is usually ignored. Textual coverage usually becomes little more than cataloguing, while biographical materials in this area are relatively scarce. For that reason many teachers will be unusually interested in Berta N. Briggs' Charles Willson Peale, Artist and Patriot. Whether as an ambitious young man without any particular aim in life other than security, as a soldier in the Revolution, as one of the new Republic's best artists, or as a museum director and publicizer, Peale was an interesting man, frequently in the thick of exciting and important situations. It would be difficult to find a person in the field of American art who was so close to major political, military and economic events. For many young Americans, therefore, this biography can be used as a relatively painless stepping-stone between better known events and the equally important cultural development of our nation.

Roger Burlingame, author of many books which popularize aspects of America's industrial and economic history, has written the story of one of America's unheeded prophets. It is good for young people to learn that our nation has not always been infallible, that our people have sometimes refused to listen to those who had sureness of vision, and that the role of the "awakener" is often uncomfortable—especially if the people insist on sleeping. Written in an interesting style, illustrated with photographs that complement the text, General Billy Mitchell, Champion of Air Defense is a competent job.

HERE, then, are six unusually good books, designed to meet a very real need—almost a vacuum. Here are books that are adult in their comprehension of the significance of men and events, yet are colorful and challenging to the adolescent. What do social studies teachers do with them?

In the first place, teachers in the senior high school, and probably in the junior high grades as well, should read the books themselves: read them as enrichment of their own content knowledge, and read them for familiarity in terms of recommendation to their students. Superior students should be encouraged to read them all. Those students who are not too verbal, do not read too well, are not too inquisitive, can be given assignments calling for the reading of a particular chapter, the discovery of a certain piece of information, the ability to generalize about a person or a situation.

Whether students are assigned to read a volume or are merely to use the books as supplementary material in the gathering of specific information, the desired end, of course, is interest in reading the series, in reading other biographies, in finding out more about the problems and solutions, the individual mistakes and sacrifices, of past generations. Thus they learn the pressures and loneliness, the fears and joys of all men, and they gain that familiarity with great men which is necessary if our generation is to identify with the American ideal and the American patriot. These books belong in every school library. If possible they should be available in classroom collections; not in single copies, but in as many duplicates as the financial condition of a school district will permit.

Social Studies in the Primary Grades

J. D. McAulay

HERE seem to be five main objectives for the social studies in the primary grades applicable, also in part, to the entire six

grades of the elementary school.

1. The child should obtain broad information from the social studies which will enrich his life. This information is to be secured, not primarily from the teacher, but by the child engaging in research and investigation. The child and the teacher cooperatively set up the social problem which is to be solved by extensive free reading, through work projects and by every feasible method of investigation.

2. The second objective of the social studies is to prepare the child for his civic responsibilities, to teach him to respect and conserve public property, to understand public agencies and officers and to appreciate, on his level of maturity, the duties and responsibilities of a citizen in

American Democracy.

3. The third objective is that the child should be given the opportunity to solve problems built about social concepts. These problems should challenge his level of mental, emotional and social maturity and meet his interest and need.

4. The child must be allowed to have social contact and social interaction in the social studies. He must be allowed to work with other children in groups. He should learn to accept the responsibility of leadership. He must learn how to cooperate and work with his peer groups.

5. Finally, through the social studies the child must learn to work with things. The problem to be solved should be organized through functional work projects, harmonious with the problem, and allowing the child to work with his hands.

These five major objectives must be organized and hinged about content. The information gained from the content is not the primary objective, however, since the way information is gained is more important than the amount of it that is gained. This content must be closely related to modern social conditions, especially the child's own social experiences. In the greater number of elementary schools, the curriculum for the primary grades is organized about the home and community. In the first grade, the theme of content of the social studies about which the above five objectives are organized is "At Home and School"; in the second grade, the general theme is "Community Helpers"; and in the third grade it is "Living in Country and City." Does the content, built about these general themes, give sufficient framework to realize the above five named objectives? And does this content meet the needs and interests, the social and emotional maturity level of the primary grade youngsters? And finally, does this content meet the challenge of modern educational influences upon the child within the community?

Sociologists have concluded that the home and community and the communicative sources of movies, television, radio and comic books have a greater influence in the moulding of behavior patterns of children than has the school.1 Attitudes, appreciations, and interests are moulded more completely by these influences than by the school. In fact, too often the school must negate the effects of these influences. Too, the average modern child in the primary grades has traveled a greater number of miles in his few short years than did his grandparents during their entire life time.2 Thus the child has a fine opportunity to comprehend modern social events, to understand the neighboring areas beyond his community and to know first hand more than one

community culture.

In an attempt to pretest their knowledge and understanding of the social studies units to be covered during the coming school year and to determine the influence of the community upon their interests, 70 second-graders were interviewed in September.

The author of this article is director of education of the Southern Oregon College of Education at Ashland, Oregon.

¹ John Dewey, Democracy and Education. New York: Macmillan Company, 1937. p. 2.

²Lee C. Gordon, An Introduction to Modern Education. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1953. p. 472.

1. Forty-seven of these second grade children had television sets at home and listened to and watched evening news summary with the family.

2. Sixty-three of the children had made holiday trips during the previous summer one hundred miles or more from the home community. Twenty-seven had visited some other state during the holiday months and two had visited the

national capitol.

3. Eighteen children had emigrated from another state during the summer and could recollect some social, geographic, economic, civic or historic event of the state from which they had come. These children had broadened their understandings beyond their immediate community through travel and first hand experience.

4. Forty-two children (or 60 percent of the group interviewed) indicated that they had a broad understanding of how the community was housed. They could explain and use such terms as duplexes, bungalows, apartment blocks, motels, and hotels. These children know which area of the community had housing for permanent residents and which neighborhoods had housing for transients ("where people don't live long," one little girl explained). Yet the introductory unit for the year was to be "How the Community is Housed."

5. Thirty-three children had visited a dairy ranch. Twenty had been on a cattle ranch and 23 on a wheat farm. Sixty-three had visited the fruit orchards which surrounded the town. The experience of these children was beyond the content of the unit on the interdependence of

farm and city indicated in the course of study for the second grade.

6. All but seven of the 70 children questioned could give at least two duties of a policeman. All but five could give at least one contribution of the firemen in the community. Yet each of these community officials was to be given a valuable unit.

7. Questioned as to what they would like to study the children responded with, jet planes, sea fishing, "what those islands are like blown up by the H bombs." Twenty-three children knew Indo China was in a hot land and knew of the fighting there through TV programs, movie newsreels, or radio newscasts. Eleven children knew there was a relationship between the Geneva Conference and the fighting in Indo China.

Are we failing in the primary social studies because:

 The content is not sufficiently challenging to the children in that it is material they already know and comprehend.

2. The social interests and needs we had assumed valid for seven and eight year olds are invalid for this transient, fast moving age.

The content is not sufficiently solid as a structure for the primary objectives of the social studies.

This one study is not sufficient to determine the answers. But every primary teacher would be wise in pretesting the children before each unit and enlarging only upon that content where their understanding and knowledge are weak.

DID YOU KNOW?

That the E. I. Du Pont De Nemours and Company secured the American rights to manufacture cellophane from La Cellophane Société Anonyme of France in 1923; that the first sheet of Du Pont cellophane was produced in Buffalo in the spring of 1924, and that today more than 40,000 workers with an annual payroll of \$120,000,000 are employed in industries directly or indirectly engaged in the manufacturing, distribution, and sale of cellophane.

"Cellophane's influence on the economics and the customs of the U. S. public has been profound. Today, there are few American homes that have not in some way, been affected by the transparent film that sparkles. A scientific curiosity that cost \$2.65 a pound and was found only on luxury goods in 1924, it now sells for less than 60 cents a pound and packages some 5000 different items familiar in America's stores.

"In the course of this advance, the film created 5000 new jobs in Du Pont alone. It put in business over 300 cellophane processors. It helped revolutionize food packaging, distribution and merchandising, with mass savings to U. S. shoppers. It provided new opportunities for the many investors, suppliers and customers." (From The Story of Cellophane, a 24-page pamphlet distributed by the Du Pont Company.)

Italy: A Radio Script

Leonard A. Vitcha

CAST

Announcer Pietro Piccollo—about 22, quiet, thoughtful Andrew Caldwell—American business man Carlo Bassi—smooth

SOUND

Station Gong Mussolini recording Carnival Music

Announcer: This is the Board of Education Station. (Pause five seconds) Stay tuned to this station for the Division of Social Studies program which follows in ten seconds.

(Sound-Gong-Pause five seconds)

Announcer: (on cue) In its CURRENT TOP-ICS Series, the Division of Social Studies presents a program on "Italy."

Pietro: (cue) I remember so well what Mr. Caldwell said about my country when he talked to me about being his guide while he was in Italy.

Caldwell: (cue) (fade in) I need a guide to see Italy—as much as I can see in the time I'm here. I'm interested in this country because of its history, old churches, castles and Roman ruins. Then I want to visit some of these old villages. My wife said some of them haven't changed since the time of Columbus—500 years. (fade) I think you'll do, Pietro. You're hired. Now I'll spend several days here in Rome.

Pietro: (cue) I also remember what Mr. Caldwell said when he left my country. . . .

Caldwell: (cue) Goodbye, Pietro. Thank you for everything. It's been a pleasure having you

for a guide. You're a fine young man. I wish I could take you back to New York with me. Certainly there isn't much opportunity for you here. I started out to see history, old churches, Roman ruins. And I did see some. But I saw these people and what's happening here. And it shocks me, frightens me (fade). I'll be back next year if conditions don't get worse. Good luck and don't be come discouraged, Pietro.

Pietro: (cue) Andrew Caldwell was this American's name-from New York, a businessman and importer. I like him-showing him around, telling him about my country, Italy. My name is Pietro Piccollo and I am a tourist guide. That is not much of a job for a young man trained to be a surveyor. I earn only 18,000 Lira a month which is only go dollars. But there are so many people unemployed-perhaps I am fortunate to be working at all. There are 2,000,000 unemployed in Italy and 2,000,000 partly employed out of 47,000,000 Italians; and I am one of those partly employed. Well, Mr. Caldwell told me to arrange an itinerary. I suggested we go to Calabria in the south where I was born. He agreed, hired a car and we drove south from Rome. Mr. Caldwell was watching the scenery as we were driving into Calabria. He asked me a question. . . .

Caldwell: (cue) Pietro, who owns this land? Do you know?

Pietro: This land, sir, is owned by Baron Barrocco, a nobleman.

Caldwell: How much of it?

Pietro: Thousands of acres. The Barroccos, the Berlingeri's and Galluccio's own millions of acres—much of the province of Calabria.

Caldwell: It's the most God-forsaken area I ever saw-no trees, nothing green, no houses. What do they need all this land for? What do they do with it?

Pietro: They have used it as a hunting preserve—to hunt the wild boar. There were trees here once, my father told me, but the owners cut them down so they could hunt better.

Caldwell: But the people down here, the peasants, don't they need this land? Couldn't they cultivate it?

Pietro: Perhaps, but the owners wouldn't sell

This radio script was prepared by Mr. Vitcha, staff writer for WBOE, under the direction of the Division of Social Studies of the Cleveland Board of Education, and was broadcast as a part of the social studies program.

it. Besides, the peasants have no money. Oh, some of the land has been cultivated. Tobacco or wheat is raised on the fertile sections—and olive trees are grown.

Caldwell: Do the land owners hire the peasants

as agricultural laborers?

Pietro: Oh, of course. They pay them 6000 Lira

Caldwell: Six thousand Lira! Ten dollars a month! That's unbelievable!

Pietro: Sometimes the peasants rent the land. Did you notice that man walking along the road with the hoe and shovel over his shoulder?

Caldwell: Yes.

Pietro: He was probably walking from one section of the land he rents to another.

Caldwell: But-oh-isn't his land-the farm he rents all in one piece? It's that way in the United States.

Pietro: But not in southern Italy.

Caldwell: These poor people! Say, Pietro, (cross mike) Look.

Pietro: You mean that woman and children cooking there along side the hill?

Caldwell: Yes, why was she cooking outside

there? There's no house around.

Pietro: Mr. Caldwell, she has no house. That

Pietro: Mr. Caldwell, she has no house. That family lives in a cave along the hillside. Thousands of families around here live in caves.

Caldwell: They have no land. They have no houses.

Pietro: Oh, Mr. Caldwell. We shall stop soon in the next village. There is a famous Roman ruin there which you should see. . . .

Caldwell: Forget about those ruins, Pietro

Tell me more about these people.

Pietro: Well, in some villages here, three out of four can't read or write. There are few schools and children do not attend school—they must help their parents farm. And there is much disease—trachoma, typhoid, tuberculosis. In some villages one half of the babies die before they are two years old.

Caldwell: But isn't something being done, Pietro? To improve their conditions, I mean. I read something about a land law being passed.

Pietro: Yes, land is being given to them. Three years ago a law was passed in which the government bought land from the great landowners and gave it to these peasants. But there is much more to be done. . . .

Caldwell: What do you mean, Pietro?

Pietro: Oh, roads must be built, irrigation must be developed. See how dry everything is...

Caldwell: Yes, I can see.

Pietro: Reforestation must be carried onschools, homes and hospitals built. I know about this because my brother has worked for the Cassa Mezzgiorno, the Southern Fund, which is doing this work. And then the peasants must have fertilizer, seeds, fruit trees. . . . It is a big problem.

Caldwell: It certainly is.

Pietro: Some of the \$4,000,000,000 which the United States has given Italy under the Marshall plan has gone for this project. In ten years over \$1,500,000,000 will be spent.

Caldwell: Well, at least that money will be well spent. These people won't become Communists. They'll support the Christian Democrat Party—the party which gave them this land.

Pietro: (wry smile) I am not so sure, Mr. Cald-

well.

Caldwell: What do you mean, Pietro? Of course, these people won't go Communist. They'll own land. They'll have a home. They'd lose it under Communism.

Pietro: It is not that simple, Mr. Caldwell. These people are suspicious, distrustful. They are afraid what the government has given them it may take away. Mussolini promised these people land; and he gave them a little, too, but . . .

Caldwell: Yes, I remember Il Duce and his

promises.

Pietro: Mussolini gave all of us hope and promises—and dreams—dreams which became night-mares. I remember when my father took me to hear him in the Palazzo Venezia. I was a boy, thrilled, excited. Mussolini spoke from the balcony....

(Sound-Fade in Mussolini recording. Establish for about 20 seconds and fade out)

Pietro: These peasants remember that. And then came the war, the death of their sons, and invasion. Can you blame them for being suspicious, distrustful?

Caldwell: You certainly can't.

Pietro: Then there is something else—some of these peasants have not been given enough land. One peasant has been given eight acres. But he has eight children.

Caldwell: He can hardly support eight children

very well on eight acres. . . .

Pietro: So he wants more. Then perhaps you understand, Mr. Caldwell, that sometimes people who receive gifts—they are not grateful—they do not always like the giver.

Caldwell: (cue) I know exactly what you mean. Some of the aid we've given in Europe hasn't been appreciated. Say, how much farther do we have to drive, Pietro? (fade) Riding in this small car is tiring. You said we'd be stopping soon. I'd like to get a good night's sleep tonight if we

can find a good hotel.

Pietro: (cue) We spent two days in Calabria and then went back to Rome. We stopped off in the town of L'Aquila. As we walked down the street, I heard some angry talk and muttering about "Americans." So I hurried Mr. Caldwell back to the hotel. When we arrived, he sat down and began to talk.

Caldwell: (cue) (smile) That was a little excit-

ing, Pietro.

Pietro: (cue) I am sorry that occurred, sir. That does not happen often. But there are many Communists in this village.

Caldwell: Oh, that's all right, Pietro. I'll have something to tell my wife when I get back home.

Pietro: Usually the Communists are very well behaved these days—no riots, no demonstrations, no mobs, no angry speeches. . . .

Caldwell: How come? Are they losing all their fight? I mean, are they—oh—sort of giving up getting members and followers?

Pietro: Oh, no. But they are changing-oh-

Caldwell: Their strategy?

Pietro: Yes, that's the word. Now this town here. It is prosperous. The peasants are—oh—well off.

Caldwell: They look better than the peasants in Calabria, certainly.

Pietro: But Communism is strong here. Why? I will tell you. The Mayor, the city officials here are all Communists.

Caldwell: They are?

Pietro: A year ago I came here for a job as a surveyor. I met a friend, Carlo Bassi, whom I had known in Calabria. He was older than I and a member of the underground fighting the Germans during the War. For some reason or other he had come to L'Aquila. We exchanged greetings and then Carlo said to me:

Carlo: (cue) So you are here looking for work, Pietro. Things are not very good for you in Rome,

ehi

Pietro: (cue) No, there is no work in Rome. But the Contractor, Dozza, needs surveyors. And I have a good letter of recommendation from the employment agency in Rome. The manager knows Dozza.

Carlo: Dozza needs surveyors I know, Pietrobut he will not hire you.

Pietro: Why not? I have this letter. I know my trade....

Carlo: It makes no difference, Pietro. He still will not hire you.

Pietro: But why not?

Carlo: Pietro, I notice you do not wear the button of the Communist Youth Federation. . . .

Pietro: Of course not. I am no Communist, Carlo, you know that.

Carlo: Pietro, look, I will give you a button. You will wear the button and sign a membership card. Then, perhaps, the contractor, Dozza, will hire you.

Pietro: (angry) You mean Dozza hires only

Communists. . .

Carlo: No, I did not say that, my friend. But if you wear this button it may help.

Pietro: Carlo, I am no Communist. I will not

wear that button! Never!

Carlo: Oh, very well, Pietro. Suit yourself. Dozza needs surveyors. You are a surveyor. But Dozza likes young men who—oh—are of the right party. Here in L'Aquila we take care of our party members. We help them out. Now if you should work here I could get you a nice room reasonable—that is, if you wear the button. If your father should move here he could get groceries at a Communist store at—oh—good prices. You see, Pietro, we could help you out—if you wear the button. We are strong here and we are growing. Think it over, Pietro. (fade) If you change your mind let me know. You can go to work immediately if you wish. Dozza will be glad to hire you.

Caldwell: (cue) You didn't take the Communist

button, did you, Pietro?

Pietro: Oh no, Mr. Caldwell.

Caldwell: And you didn't get the job either, did you?

Pietro: No, I didn't.

Caldwell: Why the Communists are just like the political machines in some American cities back home....

Pietro: I do not understand what you mean, sir.

Caldwell: Never mind, Pietro. I was sort of thinking out loud. They do favors to win members—anything to win votes.

Pietro: Of course, Mr. Caldwell. When we were coming back to the hotel did you hear that

music?

Caldwell: No, I didn't, Pietro. (smile) I was in too big a hurry....

Pietro: (smile) Oh, you mean that angry crowd-

Caldwell: Yes.

Pietro: Well, (fade off) I will open this window.

(Sound: Window opens. Music of Carnival. Merry-go-round begins. Off. Establish and keep in background

Pietro: Now-You can hear that music.

Caldwell: What is it?

Pietro: A carnival—a carnival sponsored by the Communists.

Caldwell: What. . . .

Pietro: Fun for everyone-free ice cream for the children, candy, dancing for the young

people.

Caldwell: They certainly are clever the way they try to win people over. But don't people know what they're getting into when they become mixed up with Communism?

Pietro: No, they do not. Some people are ignorant—they do not understand. Last year 9,000,000 voted Communist in the June elections—one out of three Italians.

Caldwell: One out of three Italians! One third

of the nation!

Pietro: But they are not all real Communists....

Caldwell: Even at that, don't they realize that a Communist government may take over?

Pietro: Mr. Caldwell (smile) Carlo would say Americans are more worried about Italy going

Communist than Italians themselves.

Caldwell: It's something to worry about. What happens to NATO or EDC? Why, if a Communist ministry should take over in Italy, American foreign policy would have to be completely revised.

Pietro: Mr. Caldwell, my father says a Communist ministry will not take over-not soon, anyway.

Caldwell: How come? Why not?

Pietro: He says that the Communists are too shrewd for that. Perhaps they may try to make Pietro Nenni Prime Minister.

Caldwell: Strategy again, hmm. . . . So Nenni and the left wing socialists may be their stooges. Very clever. Perhaps you do not understand the word, "Stooge," Pietro. . . .

Pietro: No, I do not.

Caldwell: It means a tool or a puppet.

Pietro: Oh-but if Nenni or even the Communists should take over the government, I do not think Italy will become an ally of Russia. . . .

Caldwell: Why not?

Pietro: Because we will not be a satellite like Poland or Hungary. We have too much pride to be a stooge for Russia. Caldwell: I'm glad to hear that, Pietro.

Pietro: Italy has been a great power in the past, Mr. Caldwell. We are not like the small countries of Central Europe. And then we are not so close to Russia as Poland, Hungary, or Rumania.

Caldwell: I see what you mean. The arm of the Kremlin may reach as far as Warsaw, Budapest, or Prague, but not as far as Rome.

Pietro: Yes, that's it, Mr. Caldwell.

Caldwell: Pietro, I know the Christian Democrat party didn't win a majority in Parliament in the last election. But how did they actually make out? How many seats did they win?

Pietro: Two hundred and sixty-five—thirty-one short of a majority. The Communists had 143. Caldwell: The Christian Democrats are still

ahead.

Pietro: But they must have the help of the small parties, the center party, right wing socialists, or the monarchists in order to get a majority -296.

Caldwell: That's the trouble with so many parties. Now if you had three parties instead of six or seven, the Christian Democrats might

have won a majority.

Pietro: (smile) Mr. Caldwell, perhaps you have already heard the saying in Italy—When three Italians talk politics, they organize four political parties.

(Sound-Mild laughter)

Caldwell: Let's see—If the Communists organize a government, form a ministry, they'll have to have—oh—153 deputies vote with them.

Pietro: And that would mean the deputies of the left wing socialist, monarchists, neo-fascist,

and the small center parties.

Caldwell: And they probably can't get all those deputies. Say, that's really encouraging, Pietro, very encouraging. (fade) Now that we've found a hopeful note in this political discussion, suppose we look around again. Maybe we could go out and see that carnival.

Pietro: (cue) Mr. Caldwell left me in a day or two to go north. I did not accompany him. I am still working as a guide, hoping for employment as a surveyor. I do not know what will happen to my country. A nation which has gone through one war, dictatorship, and then another war, has difficulty learning democracy, especially when it has so many problems.

Announcer: You have been listening to CUR-RENT TOPICS presented by the Division of Social Studies. This is your school station.

Understanding Social Concepts 1934-1952

Bernard R. Corman

ANY of the more outspoken critics of public school education allege that modern students are not learning as "much" as students of an earlier time. By "much" is usually meant the acquisition of basic concepts and facts. The supposed failure of the modern school is charged to the exaggerated concern of "educationists" for "life adjustment," "pupil needs," and the like.

An opportunity to gather some limited evidence on the difference in learning of a few basic social studies concepts by two generations of high school students recently presented itself to the author. As part of the overall evaluation program of the Citizenship Education Project, some 6,000 high school students were given a battery of tests prior to their undertaking "getout-the-vote" projects and before any direct instruction. Seven questions were included for which data were available on a population in school about 1934.1

The comparison that can be made is suggestive but not definitive. This is true for at least two reasons. In the first place, the 1934 report gave data for students in the tenth and twelfth grades. The students in the 1952 group were in the middle of their eleventh year. However, assuming that growth between the tenth and twelfth grade was linear, it is possible to estimate what 1934 eleventh graders would have done on these seven concepts. Secondly, the cities represented in the two samples vary. However, the differences favor the earlier generation, for the classes in the 1934 sample were mainly from

urban centers in the northeast, while the classes in the modern group, drawn at random from a larger population of classes, included rural and educationally depressed areas. Despite these two important restrictions, a comparison of the two generations is instructive.

The seven questions used were taken from various forms of Luella Cole Pressey's Test of Concepts Used in the Social Studies. These tests had as their purpose the measurement of understanding of 346 concepts which a panel of specialists agreed were basic to success in college work. The test items all ask a question, as for example, "What does suffrage mean?" The student is asked to choose the best answer from among four alternatives. The following table summarizes all of the essential data.

Percentage of Students in Two Generations Answering Correctly Test Items on Seven Basic Social Studies Concepts

	•	1934		1952	DIFFERENCES	
CONCEPT		11th* 11 810 to 110		11th (=799) -		1934 11th*
Primary	77%	85%	93%	93%	00%	-08%
Suffrage	56	79	92	83	09**	-04
Patronage	61	64	67	62	05	02
Platform	41	48	55	63	-o8**	-15**
Inflation	38	33	26	83	-57**	-50**
Policy	39	51	62	45	1700	06
Ticket	79	82	84	71	13**	11**

Estimated

On the basis of these results, there is little reason for arguing that either generation of students had a markedly superior understanding of the seven basic concepts tested. If our comparison is between the 1952 eleventh graders and the estimated percentage correct for 1934 eleventh

^{••} Significantly different at the 1% level of confidence.

[&]quot;Although the facts here reported are hardly worldshaking, and are not likely to convince the 'bitterend' critics of the public schools, they may interest your readers," the author writes in a letter accompanying his article. Dr. Corman is associate professor of education at the University of Florida in Gainesville.

¹ Truman L. Kelly and A. C. Krey. Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934. The exact date that the tests were administered is not reported.

graders, then we find the 1952 group was superior in its understanding of the concepts of "primary," "platform," and "inflation." There was no reliable difference in the two groups' understandings of "suffrage," "patronage," and "policy." Only in the case of the concept of "ticket" did the earlier generation of students prove more knowledgeable than the modern students.

If our comparison is between the twelfth grade students of 1934 and the eleventh grade students in 1952, the same conclusion seems tenable—neither of the two generations was markedly superior. In this case the 1934 twelfth graders exhibited a better understanding of the concepts "suffrage," "policy," and "ticket." There were no reliable differences on the two concepts of "primary" and "patronage," and the 1952 group had a significantly better comprehension of the meaning of "platform" and "inflation."

What is suggested by the percentages is that the

understanding of basic social concepts is as much influenced by the social environment as by anything the school does or does not do. Consider the difference in the two generations' understanding of the concept, "inflation." Fully 50 percent more of the recent students could correctly identify the concept—and this for a generation whose whole school experience has been spent in a time of constantly inflating prices is not surprising. On the other hand, the concept "ticket" was much more familiar to the earlier generation of students. A colleague has suggested that this may be a reflection of the decreased emphasis in modern times of voting a straight ticket.

Whatever the validity of these last interpretations may be, this much is clear—the data presented above do not indicate superiority for either the older or the newer generation of high school students.

SIDELIGHTS

"When something goes wrong with any of our household tools, we tend to act as if the object showed malice. It is by no means a new idea that at times the things created by man to lighten his daily drudgery get out of hand and that he may lose his control over them. Similar was the fear of the sorcerer's apprentice who stammered, "How can I get rid of the spirits I called up myself!" Atomic power, that supreme triumph of modern science which snatched from the Builder of the Universe the secret of His suns and planets, has already reared up so threateningly that the whole world fears the consequences of our enlightenment.

"This ancient human fear of the potential dangers of the things made by man himself induced an old Peruvian artist to paint a pictorial story of "The Revolution of the Tools" on a vase of the Protochimu epoch. The lower border of the design, depicting waves and fish and seals, indicates that the rising of the objects against their human exploiters took place at the seacoast. Only three human figures are shown, two of them prisoners in chains, the third under attack. The rest of the characters are things, led by a cudgel which threatens the man in the center; the rebels are belts and headdresses, slings, catapults, hel-

mets, purses, and pieces of jewelry. Now that their day of revolt against their employers and suppressors has dawned, they are ready to take revenge against his presumptuousness. All this is in accordance with an old Quiche myth which predicts that the day will come when dogs and chickens, pots and pans, and grinding slabs will make man taste the hardships to which he habitually submits them—the slabs will grind their human inventors; the pots will boil them; the chicken slaughter them; the pans will roast them. This has happened before, says the saga, and it will happen again.

"'Long, long ago the sun disappeared and the world was shrouded in complete darkness for five long days. This was the signal for the things to mobilize. The stones began to grind, the mortars and pestles marched against their masters and even the llamas attacked their keepers in the stables as well as in the fields."

"Look around you, all-knowing Homo sapiens. Be kind to the things which serve you. Handle them gently—they might resent rough treatment. Appreciate the never-ceasing readiness of the gadgets you devised to serve you." (Quoted by permission of the publisher from *The Origin of Things* by Julius E. Lips, p. 44-45. Copyright 1947 by A. A. Wyn, Inc., New York 36, New York.

Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies 1953-1954

Alice W. Spieseke

This listing is the sixth annual supplement to the 48-page bulletin published in September 1949, by the National Council for the Social Studies (See Alice W. Spieseke, Bibliography of Textbooks for the Social Studies, Bulletin 23, September 1949, and the subsequent annual supplements appearing in Social Education). Copies of the bulletin may be obtained for 75 cents each; reprints of the supplementary listings, 10 cents each. Send your orders to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

History

BARKER, ALSAGER, AND WEBB: The Story of Our Country, by Eugene C. Barker, Marie Alsager, and Walter P. Webb; 468 p.; Row, Peterson; \$2.64; 1954 (1948, 1943, 1941).

CORDIER-ROBERT SERIES: By Ralph W. Cordier and E. B. Robert; Rand McNally.

a. History for the Beginner; 240 p.; \$2.52; 1954 (1948). Supplemented by: teacher's manual.

b. History for Young America; 288 p.; \$2.96; 1954 (1948). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual.

c. History of World Peoples; 312 p.; \$3.20; 1954 (1949). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual.

DEVEREAUX: America's Own Story, by Vanza Devereaux; xiv + 370 p.; Harr Wagner; \$3.20; 1954.

TAIT: Breastplate and Buckskin: A Story of Exploration and Discovery in the Americas, by George E. Tait; vii + 235 p.; Bennett; \$2.24; 1953.

Geography

Barrows, Parker, and Sorensen: Man in His World Series. By Harlan H. Barrows, Edith P. Parker, and Clarence W. Sorensen. Silver Burdett. Each book supplemented by: workbook; teacher's guide.

a. Our Big World; vi + 186 p.; \$2.56; 1954 (1951, 1946).

b. The American Continents; vi + 314 p.; \$3.40; 1954 (1951, 1946).

c. Old World Lands; vi + 346 p.; \$3.56; 1954 (1952, 1951, 1950, 1947).

Carls and Sorenson: Neighbors Across the Seas, by Norman Carls and Frank E. Sorenson; viii + 392 + 32-page atlas; Winston; \$3.96; 1954 (1950). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual.

McConnell Series. Rand McNally.

a. Around the Home, by Wallace R. McConnell and Laura M. Hugley; 202 p.; \$2.52; 1954 (1947

Geography Around the Home). Supplemented by: workbook.

POOLE-BARTON-BAKER: Geography Foundation Series. By Sidman P. Poole, Thomas F. Barton, and Clara B. Baker. Bobbs-Merrill. Each book supplemented by: concept chart for the teacher's use.

b. From Season to Season; iv + 172 p.; \$2.24; 1954 (1947).

c. In Country and City; vi + 234 p.; \$2.76; 1954

STULL AND HATCH: Our World Today Series. By De Forest Stull and Roy W. Hatch. Allyn and Bacon.

c. The Eastern Hemisphere; viii + 408 p.; \$3.72; 1953. Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual for text and workbook.

THURSTON AND HANKINS: Homelands of the Americas, by Ernest L. Thurston and Grace Croyle Hankins; viii + 472 p.; Iroquois; \$3.96; 1954. Supplemented by: teacher's guide.

Whipple and James: Basal Geographies. By Gertrude Whipple and Preston E. James; Macmillan. Our Changing Earth; x + 318 p.; \$3.12; 1954.

Fusion or General Social Studies

BURKHARDT AND McGUINNESS: Our Community, by Richard W. Burkhardt and Ann G. McGuinness; 240 p.; Beckley-Cardy; \$2.20; 1954.

CLIFFORD: America My Home, Then and Now, by Harold B. Clifford; 333 p.; Scribner's; \$2.20; 1953 (1946, 1944, 1939).

Moore, Cooke, Lewis, Painter, Carpenter, and Paquin: Scribner Social Studies Series. Scribner's.

a. Building Our Communities, by Clyde B. Moore, Gertrude M. Lewis, Fred B. Painter, and Helen M. Carpenter; viii + 312 p.; Scrbner's; \$2.36; 1954 (1949).

New Follert Unified Social Studies. Follett. Each book supplemented by: teacher's guide; student's directed activities and teacher's key; unit tests.

a. Working Together, by Alta McIntire and Wil-

hemina Hill; 256 p.; \$2.40; 1954 (1946 Workers

at Home and Away).

c. Exploring the New World, by O. Stuart Hamer, Dwight W. Follett, Ben F. Ahlschwede, and Herbert H. Gross; 496 p.; \$3.64; 1953; (1949, 1948, 1947, 1942, 1941 The New World and Its Growth by Jacob G. Meyer and O. Stuart Hamer).

c. Exploring Our Country, by O. Stuart Hamer, Dwight W. Follett, Ben F. Ahlschwede, and Her-

bert H. Gross; 400 p.; \$3.48; 1953.

Nystrom, Jones, and Harter: Beyond Our Borders, by J. Warren Nystrom, Emlyn D. Jones, and Helen Harter; 448 p.; Rand McNally; \$3.88; 1954.

Man's Ways and Times Series. Silver Burdett. Each book supplemented by: teacher's guide.

Ways of Our Land, by Clarence W. Sorensen;
 viii + 184 p.; \$2.36; 1954.

 b. Old Ways and New Ways, by Lewis Paul Todd and Kenneth S. Cooper; x + 230 p.; \$2.88; 1954.

c. New Ways in the New World, by Lewis Paul Todd and Kenneth S. Cooper; x + 350 p.; \$3.68; 1954.

d. World Ways by Lewis Paul Todd and Kenneth

S. Cooper; x + 398 p.; \$3.72; 1954.

WHALEN AND SCHMITT: Living and Working Together in the United States and in the World, by Frank D. Whalen and Irene M. Schmitt; viii + 220 p.; Noble and Noble; \$2.45; 1953.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

BARKER, COMMAGER, AND WEBB: The Standard Building of Our Nation, by Eugene C. Barker, Henry S. Commager, and Walter P. Webb; 368 p.; Row, Peterson; \$3.40; 1953 (1949, 1948, 1946, 1943, 1941, 1937 The Building of Our Nation). Supplemented by: workbook by Kantz.

BOYLE, SHIRES, PRICE, CARMEN: Quest of a Hemisphere, by Donzella Cross Boyle, H. Bess Shires, Roy A. Price, and Harry J. Carmen; vi + 558 p.; Wins-

ston; \$4.40; 1954.

McGuire and Portwoon: Our Free Nation, by Edna McGuire and Thomas B. Portwood; xii + 724; Macmillan; \$4.20; 1954 (based on Rise of Our Free

Nation, 1948, 1946, 1942).

West: Story of Our Country, by Ruth West; xiv + 754 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$3.96; 1954 (1948, 1946, 1942, 1940, 1936, 1935, 1933, 1930, 1926 The Story of Our Country by Willis M. West and Ruth West). Supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; teacher's manual for workbook.

WILDER, LUDLUM, AND BROWN: This Is America's Story, by Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett M. Brown; viii + 726 p.; Houghton Mifflin;

\$3.96; 1954 (1952, 1950, 1948).

Civics and Citizenship

CLARK, EDMONSON, AND DONDINEAU: Civics for Americans, by Nadine Clark, James B. Edmonson, and Arthur Dondineau; viii + 536 p.; Macmillan; \$3.68;

Devereaux and Aker: Living in Our Democracy, by Vanza Nielsen Devereaux and Homer Ferris Aker. 576 p.; Harr Wagner; \$2.56; 1953 (1952). Supplemented by: workbook.

KRUG AND QUILLEN: Living in Our Communities, revised edition, by Edward A. Krug and I. James Quillen; 522 p.; Scott, Foresman; \$3.52; 1954 (1950,

1946).

Geography

ATWOOD AND PITT: Our Economic World, new edition, by Wallace W. Atwood and Ruth E. Pitt; viii + 529 p.; Ginn; \$3.76; 1953 (1948).

JONES AND MURPHY: Geography and World Affairs, by Stephen B. Jones and Marion F. Murphy; 406 p.; Rand McNally; \$3.96; 1953. Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual.

McConnell Series. Rand McNally.

e. Our Working World, by Wallace R. McConnell and Helen Harter; 400 p.; \$3.72; 1953 (1947 Geography of a Working World). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual.

ROEDER: Visualized World Geography, by William S. Roeder; 400 p.; Oxford Book; \$2.20 cloth, \$1.20

paper; 1953.

Sorensen: A World View, by Clarence W. Sorensen; vi + 410 p.; Silver Burdett; \$3.72; 1954 (1952, 1949). Book 4 (d) of the Barrows, Parker, Sorensen Series, Man in His World.

STULL AND HATCH: Our World Today Series. By De Forest Stull and Row W. Hatch. Allyn and Bacon.

d. The Western Hemisphere; vi + 374 p.; \$3.72; 1953. Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual for text and workbook.

Fusion or Social Studies

Hughes and Pullen: Eastern Lands, by Ray O. Hughes and C. Haines W. Pullen; viii + 499 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$4.08; 1954. Supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; teacher's manual for workbook.

Hughes and Pullen: Western Lands, by Ray O. Hughes and G. Haines W. Pullen; viii + 472 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$4.08; 1954. Supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; teacher's manual for workbook.

ROTH AND HOBBS: Your World and You, by Lawrence V. Roth and Stillman M. Hobbs; 640 p.; Laidlaw;

\$3.60; 1954.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

Augspurger and McLemore: Our Nation's Story, by Everett Augspurger and Richard A. McLemore; 864 p.; Laidlaw; \$4.28; 1954. Supplemented by: notebook; test and answer booklet.

Bragdon and McCutchen: History of a Free People, by Henry W. Bragdon and Samuel P. McCutchen;

xi + 724 p.; Macmillan; \$4.00; 1954.

CANFIELD AND WILDER: The Making of Modern America, by Leon H. Canfield and Howard B. Wilder; xvi + 784 + xvii-lxxix p.; Houghton Mifflin; \$4.28; 1954 (1952, 1950, 1946, 1937, The United States in the Making). Supplemented by: workbook and tests by Berg and Wilder; key to workbook and tests; key to tests.

GAVIAN AND HAMM: The American Story, by Ruth W. Gavian and William A. Hamm; viii + 728 p.; Heath; \$3.60; 1954 (1951, 1947, 1945). Supplemented

by: teacher's manual; pupil's guide.

HAMM: From Colony to World Power: A History of the United States, by William A. Hamm; viii + 888 p.; Heath; \$3.96; 1953 (1950, 1947, 1942, 1938, The American People). Supplemented by: teacher's manual; activities notebook.

STEINBERG: The United States: Story of a Free People, by Samuel Steinberg; xviii + 690 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$4.12; 1954. Supplemented by: teacher's manual; workbook; teacher's manual for workbook.

Wirth: The Development of America, by Fremont P. Wirth; x + 812 + xi-lxviii p.; American Book; \$3.96; 1954 (1952, annually from 1936 to 1950 inclusive).

World History

AspenLeiter: Western Civilization, by F. J. Aspenleiter, S. J.; x + 565 p.; Loyola; \$2.52; 1953 (1951). Supplemented by: workbook and tests. For Catholic schools.

DORF: Visualized World History, by Philip Dorf; 384 p.; Oxford Book; \$1.00 paper; 1953 (1937).

LANE, GOLDMAN, AND HUNT: The World's History, revised edition, by Frederic C. Lane, Eric F. Goldman, and Erling M. Hunt; 763 p.; Harcourt, Brace; \$4.48; 1954 (1950, 1947). Supplemented by: student guide and workbook with unit tests, revised edition, by Andersen; teacher's resource book, revised edition, by Hunt and Vanaria; tests.

Neff and Planer: World History for a Better World, by William L. Neff and Mabel G. Planer; 795 p.; Bruce; \$4.36; 1953. Supplemented by: teacher's manual; testing material.

ROEHM, BUSKE, WEBSTER, AND WESLEY: The Record of Mankind, by A. Wesley Roehm, Morris R. Buske, Hutton Webster, and Edgar B. Wesley; 763 p.; Heath; 3.96; 1954 (1952, 1949). Supplemented by: teacher's manual; Pupil's study guide.

PLATT AND DRUMMOND: Our World Through the Ages, by Nathaniel Platt and Muriel J. Drummond; xvi + 684 + xx p.; Prentice-Hall; \$4.48; 1954.

Economics

HOLT: Economics and You, by Sol Holt; viii + 550 p.; Scribner's; \$3.48; 1954.

Government

COMFORT, KNAPP, AND SHULL: Your Government, second edition, by George O. Comfort, Royce H. Knapp, and Charles W. Shull; x + 501 p.; McGraw-Hill; \$3.48; 1954 (1951).

DORF: Visualized American Government, by Philip Dorf; 416 p.; Oxford Book; \$1.35 paper, \$2.20

cloth; 1953 (1951).

MAGRUDER: American Government in 1954, by Frank A. Magruder and revised by William A. McClenaghan; xii + 786 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$3.60; 1954 (yearly since 1926; 1924, 1923, 1921, 1917). Supplemented by: workbook; teacher's manual for workbook; American Government Tests, by Erbe and Denny.

PAQUIN AND IRISH: The People Govern, by Laurence G. Paquin and Marian D. Irish; viii + 598 p.; Scrib-

ner's \$4.00; 1954.

Posey and Huegli: Government for Americans, in six regional editions, by Rollin Bennett Posey and Albert George Huegli; x + 469 + xi-xli p.; Row, Peterson; \$3.80; 1953. Supplemented by: workbook.

IN THE NAME OF SANITY

(Continued from page 339)

live, and we shall surely not shape this world into the substance of our dreams, until we shift the emphasis of our thinking and our teaching from things to man himself.

"All over the world," writes Mumford, "power divorced from love has become insolent, brutal, irrational, and increasingly manic and paranoid; and by those very attributes had become impotent and self-defeating. Now that power has over-reached itself, love offers the only alternative that will lead us back to life: the Sermon on the Mount has thus become the new Mount Everest that calls forth the human spirit today. Nothing

less than that 'impossible' ascent remains as a practical alternative to our yielding to the destructive and inhuman forces that threaten our whole civilization."

If we are to save ourselves from our own folly, we must abandon the false gods and return to the true faith. "For what shall it profit a man, if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul?" This is the question we must raise and answer, each for himself, and what better time to do it than the Christmas season when we celebrate the birthday of Him whose message reaches us across nearly two thousand years of time?

Notes and News

Merrill F. Hartshorn

NCSS-AHA

The National Council for the Social Studies will hold a joint session with the American Historical Association during their annual meeting at the Commodore Hotel in New York City December 28-30, 1954. The NCSS-AHA joint session will be held on Thursday, December 30, from 2:30 to 4:30 P.M., in Room A of the Commodore Hotel.

"Some New Developments in College History and Social Science" will be the theme of the joint session that will be chaired by Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University, and past president of the NCSS. David Owen, Harvard University, will speak on "The Impact of 'General Education in a Free Society' on the Harvard History Program." Allen R. Foley, Dartmouth College, will discuss "The 'Great Issues' Course at Dartmouth," and George R. Taylor, Amherst College, will present the "'Problems in American Civilization' at Amherst." Jennings B. Sanders, U. S. Office of Education, and Richard W. Leopold, Northwestern University, will comment on the three presentations.

NCSS members are cordially invited to attend this joint session. E.M.H.

Local Council Publications

Through a questionnaire sent to regional, state, and local social studies organizations, the headquarters office of the National Council for the Social Studies has collected some information about publications of these groups. It is realized that information in the NCSS office may not be complete. Following is a list of publications that have been located. If you know of any publications not listed, will you help by sending to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, NCSS, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., the information about such publications, and if possible a copy of the publication itself?

The following list is published so that councils may know what others are doing and so that editors may easily arrange for exchanges of publications.

MIDDLE STATES COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUD-IES

Bureau of Curriculum Research Board of Education New York, New York Editor, Proceedings

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

William D. Metz University of Rhode Island Kingston, Rhode Island Editor, NEASS Bulletin

ALABAMA SOCIAL STUDIES COUNCIL Walter Lumpkin 922 West Battle Street

Talladega, Alabama

ARKANSAS COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES Amy Jean Greene 312 East Court House Square Arkadelphia, Arkansas Editor, Bulletin

SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

Dorothy Frazee Sutton Junior High School Canoga Park, California Editor, Review

COLORADO COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Edwin R. Carr College of Education University of Colorado Boulder, Colorado Editor, Bulletin

CONNECTICUT SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS ASSOCIATION

Mrs. Dorothy Hamilton Milford High School Milford, Connecticut Editor, Social Studies Topics

FLORIDA COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Richard E. Gross School of Education Florida State University Tallahassee, Florida Editor, Trends in Social Education

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Gabe Sanders University of Akron Akron 4, Ohio

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Indiana, Pennsylvania
Editor, Pennsylvania News and Views

ALLEGHENY COUNTY COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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Pittsburgh 29, Pennsylvania
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Mrs. Mabel Bell Crooks
Tennessee A & I State University
Nashville, Tennessee
Editor, Journal of Social Science Teachers

TEXAS COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Mildred Cook 3115 Rosedale Houston 4, Texas Editor, Social Studies Texan HOUSTON COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES C. E. Powell 1012 Bade Houston, Texas Editor, Social Studies Over Houston

SAN ANTONIO COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES H. W. Siegal 102 Adrian Drive San Antonio, Texas Editor, Bulletin

WISCONSIN COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES Kenneth Sager Senior High School Appleton, Wisconsin Editor, Wiscouncilor

John Hay Fellowships

High School teachers in the area of the Humanities, including the Social Studies, from the states of Alabama, Georgia, Indiana, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Tennessee, Vermont, and Washington are eligible to apply for the John Hay Fellowships. Candidates must be at least 30 years old but not over 45 at the time of application. They must have a bachelor's degree and at least five years of high school teacher's experience. They must be permanent instructors who spend half of their time in classroom instruction. They must have demonstrated personal and professional qualifications which will enable them to profit by a year of study.

The awards involve attendance at Columbia or Yale Universities for one academic year of study in areas of the Humanities broadly related to his teaching subject. The stipend is equivalent to his teaching salary plus transportation for himself and dependents and tuition fees. Applications for 1955-56 must be received by December 15, 1954. Teachers interested should write directly to the John Hay Whitney Foundation, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, New York.

"Watch Dog" Committee

In November of 1953, at the national meeting in Buffalo, the Board of Directors for the National Council for the Social Studies instructed the president to organize a "watch dog" committee to assist the Council's Committee on Academic Freedom. The chief function of the "watch dog" committee is to collect information about situations in which freedom to teach has been threatened and/or curtailed.

The chairman of the "watch dog" committee has contacted Dr. Robert A. Skaife, Field Secretary for the National Education Association, who has been active with the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education. Miss Virginia Kinnaird, Associate Secretary for the N.E.A., has been informed of the organization of the "watch dog" committee.

the organization of the "watch dog" committee.

The committee's chief source of information will be social studies teachers. All reports, newspaper clippings, and so forth should be sent to any member of the committee.

Raymond S. Iman, Chairman Benjamin Franklin High School Rochester, New York John Hanson University High School Urbana, Illinois

Winona Montgomery North Phoenix High School Phoenix, Arizona W. Scott Westerman, Jr. University of Michigan High School Ann Arbor, R.S.I.

Port Houston Council

"Skills in the Teaching of Social Studies" was the theme of the final spring meeting of the Port Houston (Texas) Council of Social Studies Teachers planned by Jennie V. Hayes, program chairman. The senior group, chaired by David Bradley, Phillis Wheatley High School, discussed "Organizing and Evaluating Materials." Mrs. Carrie Westbrooks, E. O. Smith School, presided at the junior high school session which considered "Reading and Listening Skills." Mrs. Adella Chandler, Gregory School, conducted the elementary section on the topic "Reading and Listening Skills."

Mrs. James T. Gay discussed the "Development of the Vocabulary as a Skill in Reading." "How Teachers Can Assist Younger Children Retain Ideas" was given by Mrs. Beatrice Gaines, Gregory School. Mrs. Alice Berry, Douglass School, discussed "Kinds of Listening."

The guest speaker, Mrs. Juanita LeTulle of San Jacinto High School, was introduced by Alberta Baines, supervisor of social studies in the Houston Public Schools, and spoke on "The Importance of Exchanging Ideas." N.H.H.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Contributors to this issue: Erling M. Hunt, Raymond S. Iman, and Nelle H. Holmes.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Picture Discussion Series

One of our declared aims in the teaching of social studies is often stated as the development of moral and spiritual values. To implement this aim is not a simple task if for no other reason than the fact readings and discussions that focus on moral problems tend far too often to range

into the general and abstract.

A technique for stimulating meaningful discussion of moral issues was developed a couple of years ago by Professor James Russell and the staff of the Citizenship Education Project at Teachers College, Columbia University, who undertook to develop a series of discussion kits for the Army's Information and Education Program. These kits were to focus on the values of a democratic society, a subject difficult to deal with because of its inherent abstractness. After considerable experimentation, the kits finally took the form of a series of pictures, each of which portrayed an incomplete action that could not be completed unless a moral choice-a principle to guide further action-was made. A small group viewing a picture was immediately engrossed in the human-interest aspect of the problem, but the group soon found itself moving from the concrete situation to a discussion of the more abstract principles that would serve as a basis for the selection of a possible course of action. No choice was necessarily the correct one; more important was the full and informal small-group discussion of the values upon which decisions are made in a democratic society.

Focus on Choices Challenging Youth is based upon this same picture idea and is again an effort to stimulate serious and realistic discussion of basic principles. This is the first of a new series of discussion kits to be published by the National Conference of Christians and Jews (381 Fourth Ave., New York 16). Each kit costs 25 cents and includes five copies of six different pictures. Each picture illustrates one of the many moral dilemmas faced by today's adolescents; on the back of each picture are selected discussion questions. One picture, for example, shows a most unhappy girl writing to "Alice" for advice because her mother won't let her attend the

Junior Prom with a boy who is Spanish. On the back of the picture are questions asking what probably led up to the writing of the letter, what advice Alice may have given, what choices of action were open to the girl, etc. Each of the pictures is provocative and should lead to a lively and fruitful discussion. The picture technique for stimulating discussion is worthy of serious consideration and might well have a variety of applications in other situations.

Oxford Pamphlets

Social studies and guidance teachers dealing with students in their first year of high school may be interested in Swanson and Gregory's Getting the Most Out of High School (Oxford Book Company, 222 Fourth Ave., New York 3: 1953. 74 p. 30 cents for schools). This pamphlet is designed to help students adjust to high school, and provides guidance on getting along with others. This is the third in a series of Oxford Life Guidance Pamphlets, of which six have been published and others are in preparation.

Now available, with other titles in preparation, are 20 of the Oxford Social Studies pamphlets. Costing 50 cents and averaging from 75 to 100 pages in length, these pamphlets deal with a wide range of social studies subjects. Recently revised, for example, is Lengyel's The Soviet Union-The Land and Its People (1954. 76 p.). Other recently published titles include: The American Negro, Juvenile Delinquency, The American City, Business and the American Way, and Labor and the American Way. Earlier titles deal with geography, human rights, the conservation of resources, the Middle East, religion, and a wide range of other current topics. The pamphlets are illustrated with cartoons, graphs, and maps, and include suggestions for "Things To Do" at the end of each chapter.

Headline Series

In addition to its bi-weekly, eight-page Bulletin (\$4 per year), the Foreign Policy Association (345 East 46th St., New York 17) publishes one of its Headline Series (35 cents each, or \$2 for 6 issues) of pamphlets every two months. Through the years this series has developed an enviable

reputation for timeliness, readability, and interest. Now including a discussion guide within the 64-page format, each pamphlet is appropriately illustrated with excellent maps, line draw-

ings, cartoons, and graphs.

In 1945 the United States dropped the first atomic bombs on Japan and denounced Japanese atrocities; in 1953 Vice-President Nixon called the disarmament of Japan after the war a mistake. The New Japan helps explain this reversal of our foreign policy. The first 28 pages review the highlights of Japanese history to the end of World War II, with attention to their resources, economic development, and military history. The rest of this Headline Series pamphlet deals with the occupation and peace, and concludes with an analysis of Japan's long-range problems.

Written by Frank Trager who served for two years as director of the Point Four program in Burma, Burma: Land of Golden Pagodas analyzes the economy of one of the key East Asian countries that is unique by virtue of its relatively low population in relation to its resources, enabling it to export more than it imports. It is a country that has successfully fought communist insurrection and is developing a form of socialism that looks toward the welfare state. But above all, it is a country that is determined to build its newly independent state on a basis of

freedom and democracy.

Concluding with a plea for a clearer understanding of the Indian point of view by Americans, Robert Trumbull's contribution to the Headline Series, India Since Independence, presents a sympathetic, well-balanced treatment of India's politics, economics, and society since the British left in 1947. It is written from the point of view of a first-hand observer who has travelled widely in the Middle East and is thoroughly conversant with the history and traditional attitudes of the peoples of that area. Domestic problems as well as India's relationship with her neighbors and her role in the East-West cold war are all reviewed.

Government Publications

A catalog of Representative Government Best Sellers for 1954 (64 p.) is available free from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. Over 450 of the more popular titles are listed, some of which have been best sellers since 1946. Many of the titles, particularly those under the heading of "The Federal Government," have been reviewed previously in these pages.

The United States Government Organization Manual (742 p. \$1) has been revised up to July, 1954, and is the official organization handbook of the Federal Government. A handy reference book for social studies teachers, it contains sections descriptive of the various agencies in the legislative, judicial, and executive branches. Supplemental information includes brief descriptions of quasi-official agencies and selected international organizations, charts of the more complex agencies, and several appendices.

Published by the Department of the Interior in commemoration of the Lewis and Clark expedition, Brief Account of the Lewis and Clark Expedition . . . 1804-1806, with Illustrative Map (1954. 11 p. 10 cents) is a reprint of a pamphlet originally published in 1905. A map showing in detail the route of the expedition occupies the center two pages, and on the last page is a small map showing the routes of principal explorers from 1700 to 1852—a map with far

too much detail for its size.

The more specific and realistic we can be in our teaching, the more effective it is likely to be. Accordingly, the study of actual cases, unless overly complex, is likely to be more effective than hypothetical cases. Arbitration of Labor-Management Grievances: Bethlehem Steel Company and United Steelworkers of America. 1942-52 (1954. 42 p. 35 cents) is in a very real sense a case study of the settlement of such grievances in one of our large mass-production industries that has distinguished itself by relatively harmonious relations notwithstanding the 20,000 formal grievances that arose in that decade, including about 1000 settled by arbitration. This bulletin of the Department of Labor does not make for easy reading for high school students, but there is a great deal in it for the serious student of labor relations.

The 1954 edition of Job Guide for Young Workers (32 p. 30 cents) is now available.

Among the latest Occupational Outlook Publications we have received (approximately 25 titles are currently available at prices ranging from 20 to 55 cents) are: Employment Outlook for Physicists (24 p. 25 cents), Employment Outlook in the Industrial Chemical Industry (37 p. 30 cents), Employment Outlook in Banking Occupations (42 p. 30 cents), and Employment Outlook in the Social Sciences (66 p. 30 cents). Each of these analyzes the education and training required, the salaries and types of jobs in which employment is possible, and the anticipated demand for new workers in each of the fields.

Migratory Labor in American Agriculture (188 p. 75 cents) by the President's Commission on Migratory Labor is an exhaustive report on the plight of the nomadic farm worker. Recommendations are set forth which it is hoped will improve his lot—raise his standard of living, improve his health, utilize his labor to advantage, and, above all, better his standing in our socioeconomic structure.

All of the above are purchasable from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. Since postage stamps are not accepted, a check or money order should be included with your order unless you have already purchased five-cent coupons from the Government Printing Office.

Round Table Pamphlets

Transcripts of the University of Chicago's weekly NBC radio Round Table continue to be available at 10 cents per copy, or a yearly subscription for 52 issues may be purchased for \$3. Address your orders to the University of Chicago Round Table, Chicago \$7.

Among the more significant of these pamphlets that we have received in recent weeks are: The Implications of the Oppenheimer Case, The Changing Middle East, Moving Ahead to Curb Juvenile Delinquency, France and Indochina, and Should the United States Back the Indochina Settlement?

Materials from Industry

The Educational Division of the Institute of Life Insurance (488 Madison Ave., New York 22) still makes available without charge reasonable quantities of What Life Insurance Means. Their latest free catalog of Teaching Aids on Life Insurance and Money Management, 1954-55 lists several other free booklets that may be of interest to social studies teachers. It also includes four free wall charts, and four filmstrips that cost \$3 each in black and white or \$5 in color.

The Public Relations Services Division of the General Electric Company (Schenectady 5, New York) makes available a tremendous quantity of free materials for educational purposes. Included are well illustrated pamphlets as well as booklets with the comic-book format. Although most of these are useful primarily in science classes, social studies teachers interested in technology (and certainly many of our students) will find some of them fascinating. One of their more recent titles, for example, is *Power Maker for*

America: the Story of the Turbine (34 p.), a simple, well written, and dramatic account of the history, production, functioning, and use of the modern steam turbine. If interested in more detail on their publications, write to the above address for a full list of titles.

The Educational Services of the Department of Public Relations of the Chrysler Corporation (Detroit 31) will send upon request free copies of: Chrysler Corporation—the First 30 Years of Progress (32 p.), a picture story of the historical highlights of the Chrysler Corporation, including its origin, development, and activities; Chronological History of Chrysler Corporation (7 p.), a detailed listing of major events in the history of the corporation since its founding in 1924; and the latest Annual Report, a compilation of financial and statistical data as well as interesting facts about the Chrysler Corporation, its employees, and its products.

The Exchange (10 cents per copy, or \$1 per year) is a small monthly magazine published by the New York Stock Exchange (11 Wall St., New York 5). Its articles deal, as would be expected, with matters related to stocks, are brief, and are written in non-technical language.

Write the American Petroleum Institute (50 West 50th St., New York 20) for a copy of their catalog of The Oil Industry Teaching Aid Materials. In addition to films that can be borrowed and charts that will be sent free of charge, this bibliography lists three social studies pamphlets that are available in quantity free of charge: Petroleum in Our Modern Society, The Conservation of Petroleum, and The Economics of Petroleum.

Miscellaneous Materials

Write the Education Department-Free Samples, Congress of Industrial Organizations (718 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6) for a list of the numerous leaflets and pamphlets distributed for educational purposes by the CIO. Samples of the various titles are free; the cost for multiple copies ranges from 5 cents to 25 cents each, with a few titles costing as much as \$1.

The Sidney Hillman Foundation's Reprint Department (15 Union Square, New York 3) has thus far made available free reprints of four addresses: Weapon of Fear by William T. Evjue, editor and publisher of the Madison Capitol Times; Freedom Is a Local Job by Jonathan Daniels; New Ideas for New Problems by Harry S. Truman; and Freedom Without War by John Cowles.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Films and Filmstrips for Teacher Education in Social Studies

This is an attempt to help anyone who is interested in the training of social studies teachers. The Committee found it futile to attempt to distinguish between pre-service and in-service training as practically all the films and filmstrips listed contain elements of both. The only criterion for items selected is that all have definite reference to social studies materials and methods.

The committee considers the following bibliography as a start at sorting a large amount of material. Subsequent committees will be able to

add new items as they appear.

The members of the committee would like to express their appreciation to the audio-visual departments of the University of Wisconsin, the University of Illinois, Southern Illinois University, and Illinois State Normal University for their help in compiling the bibliography.

The Committee:

Alice Eikenberry, Illinois State Normal University, Normal (Chairman)

Adeline Brengle, Bloomington (Indiana) High School

John H. Hamburg, Edgerton (Wisconsin) Public Schools

Omer W. Renfrom, Evanston (Illinois) Township High School

Gladys L. Smith, University School, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale

Harriet Stull, Western Illinois State College, Macomb

R. B. Zimmerman, Springfield (Illinois) Public Schools

In the films and filmstrips listed below, the items marked with a single asterisk are particularly useful for elementary school teachers; those marked with a double asterisk are particularly useful for secondary school teachers.

Audio-Visual Aids to Learning. 10 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows the application of various audiovisual media to a junior high school unit on Japan. Suggests effective methods of integrating the use of films, filmstrips, radio, museum exhibits and materials, and demonstrations. (United World, U. S. Army, 1951).

Bridges for Ideas. 28 minutes; sound; black-and-white Produced by Department of Cinema in cooperation with the Departments of Telecommunications and Audio-Visual Education. Examines communication media as bridges for ideas. Demonstrates means of utilizing the various media as audio-visual teaching aids. (University of Southern Cali-

fornia, 1951)

Broader Concept of Method, Parts I and II. Sound; black-and-white. Filmstrips also available. Part I, "Developing Pupil Interest" (13 minutes), contrasts the teacher-dominated lesson-hearing type of recitation with the informal, group-discussion type of lesson. Part II, "Teachers and Pupils Planning and Working Together" (19 minutes) continues the development of the project shown in the previous film. Students are shown learning to work together, to organize themselves into functional groups, to make and carry out plans for investigation, and to present their findings and recommendations in a final report, and to put into practice some of their recommendations. Shows how the teacher can provide tactful guidance in the solution of difficulties encountered by the

various groups. (McGraw-Hill, 1947)

Bulletin Boards for Effective Teaching. 12 minutes; sound; color. Script and materials by Cecilia Peikert. Intended for use with teacher-training classes, in-service classes, teacher workshops, and faculty meetings. Its purpose is to present ideas and techniques that will help a teacher make better use of the bulletin board for teaching pur-

poses. (Iowa State University, 1953)

Chalkboard Utilization. 15 minutes; sound; black-andwhite. Contains ideas within the grasp and performance ability of every classroom teacher. Redirects thinking toward the role and imaginative possibilities of the chalkboard. Describes how to use comic drawings, templates, the grid method, and the pattern method. (Young America Films, 1954)

Community Resources in Teaching. 20 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows how the community and its resources and the school and its functions can be woven together into a "pattern" of education by bringing the students into the community, using its resources as laboratory studies, and inviting the community into the school as lecturers or demonstrators. (Iowa State University, 1950)

Counseling—Its Tools and Techniques. 22 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Illustrates what tools and techniques to use in interviewing and counseling. Included are tests, questionnaires, autobiographies, cumulative and anectiotal records, films, and problem check lists. The tools and techniques are appropriate for the use of social studies teachers as well as for the professional counselor. (Mahnke, 1948)

Discussion in Democracy. 10 minutes; black-and-white; color. Educational Consultant, William G. Brink. A typi-

cal group of students learn, through expert advice and through their own experiences, the relationship of organized discussion to a democratic society. (Coronet, 1949)

Discussion of the Social Sciences. 22 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Educational Consultant, Paul Klapper. An "on-the-spot" record of an unrehearsed discussion in a first year college class in social science. Points up the role of the teacher as a guide, and illustrates the contribution of the students to a well planned, skillfully executed discussion. (Encyclopedia Britannica Films, 1950)

Effective Criticism. 10 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Educational Collaborator, E. DeAlton Partridge. Types of criticism and the difference between evaluative criticism and constructive criticism are outlined. Points out that criticism and the application of this criticism are among the most effective methods of learning. It is a useful film for junior and senior high students as well as for

teachers. (Coronet, 1951)

• The Elementary School. Three parts; sound; blackand-white; color. Parts II and III are of particular interest to teachers of social studies. The scenes are from schools of Virgina. Part II, "Communication and Number Skills," includes sequence on reading as a key to understanding the past, the use of newspapers for understanding current events, and the teaching of the skill of finding materials. Part III, "Understanding the Physical World and the Relationships of Peoples," shows opportunities for children to develop a knowledge of the physical world and an understanding of their country and the relationship of peoples. Stresses concrete, purposeful experiences appropriate to the elementary level. (Virgina State Board of Education, 105.2)

•Elementary School Teacher Education. Series of five films presenting good teaching on the elementary level. A filmstrip is available for use with each film. The following two are especially useful to the teaching of the social studies: "Curriculum Based on Child Development," 12 minutes, includes sequence on a fourth grade studying American history. "Making Learning More Meaningful," 12 minutes, describes how the teacher of a third grade class used the spontaneous interest of her pupils to develop arithmetic skills, at the same time helping them to understand more about the important economic activities of the

world around them. (McGraw-Hill, 1954)

Feltboard in Teaching. 9 minutes; sound; color. Suggests use which the classroom teacher may make of the fe't-board, also known as the visual board, feltogram, flannel-

graph, and so forth. (Wayne University, 1951)

Field Trip. 11 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Pictures procedures in proper planning, conduct, and follow-up of a field-trip experience. Shows a group of high school pupils carrying out plans for a field trip through the Dismal Swamp in Virgina. The picture highlights important points to consider in teacher plans for embarking on a field trip whether the teacher teaches science or social science. (Virginia State Board of Education, 1949)

•Fire in Their Learning. 19 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows how a fourth grade class made a study of fire and fire prevention. Intended to demonstrate good teaching methods and procedures in safety education.

(National Education Association, 1954)

Human Growth. 19 minutes; sound; color. Shows excellent use of a motion picture and correlated slides. A committee of seventh grade students previews the filmwithin-a-film and prepares the class for seeing it; a boy projects the film; and the teacher encourages a follow-up

"BACKGROUNDS OF OUR FREEDOM"

A steadily growing filmstrip series on democracy's history



discussion, referring to slides to answer questions. (E. C. Brown, 1948)

Junior Citizen. 19 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows what progressive schools are doing to train students for good citizenship. The subject matter is divided into four parts: sharing a common understanding; fitting into our economic life; .onserving our natural resources; and conserving our human resources. (Gateway, 1947)

**Learning a New Way. 11 minutes; sound; color. A high school senior's own film of his social studies class project at College High School, State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey. The theme is knowing one's community better and the topic for exploration is the industries. Cooperative planning is featured. (Moffilm, 1949)

**Learning Democracy Through School-Community Projects. 21 minutes; sound; color. Depicts experiences in democratic learning which are provided in Michigan schools. Includes student councils, student elections, Junior Red Cross, youth center, a community council meeting, a cleanup campaign, a vocational guidance conference, a school safety patrol, an audio-visual service club, and the rural field day. (University of Michigan, 1917)

*Learning Through Cooperative Planning. 19 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Elementary school children are shown doing their own planning for a program of community cooperation in cleaning up and beautifying their community. Teachers and parents serve as consultants and helpers, and the children themselves prepare a school paper and exhibit to show their planning and accomplish-

ments. (Teachers College, Columbia, 1948)

••Learning to Understand Children. Parts I and II. Sound; black-and-white. (Filmstrips also available.) Part I. "A Diagnostic Approach." 21 minutes. A case study of Ada Adams, an emotionally and socially maladjusted girl of 15. Records the efforts of one of her teachers to help her. Part II. "A Remedial Program." 23 minutes. A Continuation of the case study of Ada Adams. The techniques illustrated are indicative of the sort of remedial procedures which may be used in dealing with many types of maladjustments. (McGraw-Hill, 1947)

Lessons in Living. 22 minutes; sound; black-and-white. How a school project revitalized a community by giving the children a part in community life. (National Film

Bureau of Canada, 1945)

••Maintaining Classroom Discipline. 14 minutes; sound; black-and-white. By contrasting methods of handling the same class, techniques are shown for securing class discipline and stimulating the interest of students. (McGraw-Hill, 1947) Maps are Fun. 11 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Shows how elementary map concepts can be developed from such experiences as building a sandtable map, arranging model buildings on it, transferring the layout to paper, reducing the scale, and learning to read map symbols. (Coronet, 1946)

Motivating the Class. 20 minutes; sound; black-andwhite. Shows the importance of good motivation in the process of teaching. Contrasts "dry lecture" method with informative, interesting ones. (McGraw-Hill, 1950)

*Near Home. 25 minutes; sound; black-and-white. This film opens up to the prospective teacher and the teacher who has never really explored community study possibilities the immense wealth of education resources of every community. It indicates the breadth and depth of experiences that youngsters can pull out of a community study by showing such a study being carried on by a group of children in England. (International Film Bureau, 1946)

New Tools for Learning. 13 minutes; sound; black-andwhite. Stresses the importance of modern tools in modern education. Shows application of a variety of audio-visual materials and some of the advantages of sense perception in learning. Includes sequences on the use of films in social science classes. (Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1952)

Our Town is Our Classroom. 21 minutes; sound; blackand-white. Produced for the United States Army by Herbert Kerhow, for civilian use in occupied areas. Shows pupils learning about the government of their town by sitting in on the town's council meetings, listening to court sessions, and attending meetings of citizens and public officials. (United World Government, 1952)

Outside School Walls. 15 minutes; sound; black-andwhite. A junior high school class visits the headquarters of the United Nations. Intended to show teachers the technique of conducting a field trip. (New Tools, 1950)

Practicing Democracy in the Classroom. 20 minutes; sound; black-and-white. A filmstrip to implement after-picture discussion is available. Demonstrates what is meant by "democratic teaching techniques" by portraying students in a social studies class in Kalamazoo, Michigan being taught by the democratic method. (Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1953)

**Principles of the Art and Science of Teaching. 55 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows the unrehearsed activity of a class of eleventh grade pupils in American history. The assignment of a new unit, "The Historical Development of Certain Basic Institutions of Freedom in America," is planned cooperatively by the class. (lowa

State University, 1942)

Role Playing in Human Relations Training. 25 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows uses of role-playing in gaining insight into human relations problems, in uncovering interpersonal relationships which are hindering group progress, in practicing new behavior before trying it out in a real life situation, and in communicating human relations skills by acting them out instead of by verbal explanation. (National Education Association, 1949)

•The School—The Child's Community. 15 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Shows the problem-centered activities carried on in a modern elementary school that encourages children to accept responsibilities and share in the making of decisions. (Wayne University, 1952)

Secure the Blessings, go minutes; sound; black-andwhite. Discusses the role of education in the United States as it prepares people to use the democratic method of solving problems. Shows five adults who are trying to solve their various problems in human relations objectively, and points that it was in school that these individuals learned to make decisions. (National Education Association, 1951)

*Skippy and the Three R'S. 30 minutes; sound; blackand-white; color. Follows a first grader from his first day at school through his school experiences as guided by the teacher and her teaching methods to the point where he is learning through self-motivated endeavors and interests. (National Education Association, 1953)

*Story Acting is Fun. 10 minutes; sound; black-and-white. After seeing a boy demonstrate how he took a picture of a bird, a group of sixth grade children act out "The Village Blacksmith," the signing of the Declaration of Independence, and Tom Sawyer painting the fence.

(Coronet, 1953)

Tale of Two Towns. 45 minutes; sound; black-and-white; color. Film sponsored by the W. W. Kellogg Foundation. The citizens of two Michigan towns recognize that if our democratic way of life is to exist, the people in local communities must use the best assistance available to continually discover what their problems are and then to find solutions for them. They center their efforts around their schools as a starting point, and decide that a community school system working in cooperation with other agencies can be a powerful impetus in the lives of all. (Agra, 1952)

Tomorrow's Citizens. 10 minutes; sound; black-and-white. Examines the question—is the school child's sense of social responsibility keeping pace with his technical knowledge? It seeks in the classroom for evidence that children are being prepared to deal with the problems of a changing world. (National Film Board of Canada, 1947)

Using Audio-Visual Materials. Selections and Planning. 16 minutes. Shows instructor selecting and planning use of audio-visual materials, fitting motion pictures, still pictures, charts, models, and mock-ups into lesson plans, and checking classroom equipment and materials prior to use. Designed to demonstrate a Navy instructor at work. Emphasizes utilization procedures and planning which apply to any good instructional situation in general education. (United World Films)

Using Audio-Visual Materials—Utilization. 15 minutes. Shows how a good instructor conducts classroom lesson with use of audio-visual materials, achieving student participation in the learning process. Designed to demonstrate a Navy instructor at work. Emphasizes utilization procedures and planning which apply in any good instructional situation in general education. (United World Films)

Using the Classroom Film. 20 minutes; sound; blackand-white. A seventh-grade social studies class studying a
unit on how the world is fed finds a need for a film to
clarify problems and to answer questions that have been
raised. Using the film, "The Wheat Farmer," the teacher
previews and studies the handbook, reviews the purposes
and questions with the class prior to screening, and presents the film. The class plans further studies and activities
on the basis of what has been seen. (Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, 1945)

••We Plan Together. 20 minutes; sound; black-andwhite. Shows an eleventh grade class in the Horace Mann-Lincoln School planning and working cooperatively in their general education class over several months' time. The film itself was planned by students in the class. (Teachers College, Columbia, 1948)

Who Will Teach Your Child. 11 minutes; sound; blackand-white. Shows a contrast between a trained and able teacher and a untrained one. With imagination a teacher makes a minority group boy an accepted member of his class and develops a vivid classroom experience from this boy's special abilities growing out of exactly what made him different, his Polish background. An untrained teacher allows her class to waste time, develop bad habits, and

go to pieces. (McGraw-Hill, 1948)

*Wilson Dam School. 22 minutes; sound; back-and-white. Shows all types of non-projected audio-visual materials and methods being used effectively in an elementary school with minimum facilities. The film is particularly effective for showing an audio-visual program which depends upon the skill of the teacher in using direct experiences, community resources, and inexpensive materials. (Tennessee Valley Authority, 1942)

Filmstrips

Achieving Classroom Discipline. (Guide included) Points out the need for flexibility in handling classroom situations. (Wayne University)

*Bringing the Community to the Classroom. Shows how the community was brought to an elementary school through such means as exhibits, speakers, materials, and small group reports on field trips. (Wayne University)

Bulletin Boards at Work. Shows how the bulletin board can be used as an effective tool to inform, clarify, stimulate interest, and to aid in reports. (Wayne University)

A Core Curriculum Class in Action. Follows a ninth grade core class from its first meeting through evaluation of work done. Answers such questions as: What is the teacher's function in a core class? How is pupil-teacher planning accomplished? How are individual needs met and skills developed? (Wayne University)

The Demonstration—A Teaching Technique. Presents the principles of a successful demonstration. Includes demonstrations at the elementary level as well as at the high school and college level. (Wayne University)

Educating For Citizenship—The Grand Rapids Story. Shows how a school staff has stressed the teaching of citizenship in the regular classes and activities of school life. (Board of Education, Grand Rapids)

How to Keep Your Bulletin Board Alive. Uses cartoons to present the general principles of arrangement and

management. (Ohio State University)

How Pupils and Teachers Plan Together. Illustrates principles of teacher-pupil planning. The variety of ways in which the method is conceived and the way one teacher practices joint planning with her pupils is presented. (Wayne University)

Making Field Trips Effective. Effective techniques for planning field trips that will yield maximum benefits are illustrated. Values and purposes of field trips are also

pictured. (Wayne University)

Making Teaching Effective. Shows curriculum atmosphere in which audio-visual materials are most effective. (Ohio State University)

Making Your Chalk Talk. Presents techniques of blackboard usage. Principles of use are stated and demonstrated.

(Wayne University)

Newspapers as a Tool of Learning. (Reference manual also available) Shows tested methods of use of newspapers in the classroom. Projects and methods in use in one Wisconsin county are shown in detail. (Milwaukee Journal, 333 West State Street, Milwaukee 1, Wisconsin)

The School Looks at the Community. Visualizes what one representative school system did about making the school aware of the community's needs and make-up. Shows how a school can meet the challenge of improving school-community relations. (Wayne University)

Slidefilm in Teaching. Explains the nature and purpose of the slidefilm, its application and techniques of use in education, and its relation to other teaching tools used

by the teacher. (Young America Films)

Directory of Producers and Distributors

Following are the addresses of the producers and distributors listed in the annotated bibliography. However, in most cases, the films and filmstrips will be available at any film center.

Agra Films, Inc., P.O. Box 967, Athena, Georgia. E. C. Brown Trust, 220 South West Alder, Portland 4,

Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois. Gateway Productions, Inc., 1859 Powell Street, San

Francisco, 11, California.

Grand Rapids Board of Education, Grand Rapids 3, Michigan.

International Film Bureau, Suite 308-316, 57 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago 4, Illinois.

State University of Iowa, Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction Extension Division, Iowa City, Iowa.

Mahnke, Carl F. Mahnke Productions, 215 East 3rd Street, Des Moines 9, Iowa.

McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York.

Moffilm, Maurice P. Moffatt, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.

National Education Association, Division of Adult Education Service, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D.C. National Film Board of Canada, 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, New York; 400 West Madison St., Chicago 6, Illinois.

New Tools Learning Bureau, State Teachers College,

Upper Montclair, New Jersey.

Ohio State University, Teaching Aids Laboratory, 13 Page Hall, Columbus, Ohio.

Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, New York.

Tennessee Valley Authority, Film Services, Knoxville, Tennessee.

United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Avenue, New York 29, New York.

University of Michigan, Audio-Visual Education Center,

131 North Hall, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

University of Southern California, Audio-Visual Services, Department of Cinema, 3518 University Avenue, Los Angeles 7, California.

Virginia State Board of Education, Richmond 16, Virginia

Wayne University, Audio-Visual Materials Consultation Bureau, 5272 and Boulevard, Detroit 1, Michigan.

Young America Films, Inc., 18 East 41st Street, New York 17, New York.

The area to which the book department gives special attention this month is "Social Studies in Combination With Other Subjects," and we imagine a word of explanation may be needed. Of course, the area covered by teachers who are integrating, fusing, and correlating is as big as the words themselves. So, since we couldn't even touch on all the useful new books in it, we are reporting on just a few. These are books that have struck us as showing up in some particular way the connections between the social studies and other aspects of life, and they will have to serve as representatives of the many possible forms these connections can take. They deal with literature, art, science, agriculture, and personal guidance. Another time we may be able to take up books that tie in music, current historical fiction, consumer problems, foreign language study, or other fields. If we are to do that, we shall continue to need our readers' suggestions regarding books and possible reviewers.

A BOOK FOR THE DEPARTMENT LIBRARY

Social Understanding Through Literature. By G. Robert Carlsen and Richard S. Alm. National Council for the Social Studies, Bulletin 28. Washington: N.C.S.S., 1954. 111 p. \$1.25.

The authors of this bulletin have performed a signal service for teachers of modern problems courses. It is well organized in six general classifications according to the environments in which an individual may find himself. Each class is again divided into specific problems. Practically all the social problems that may be touched in these courses are covered in this bibliography.

The teacher is given considerable help in using the book lists. Each book, with the exception of those dealing with occupations, is well annotated. Again, each novel, play and biography cited is further classified as adolescent material written for teen-agers; adult books that are more mature or may include incidents involving controversial subjects. The teacher will find this classification most helpful in selecting literature to fit various topics and varying abilities and interests of his students. The bulletin is also well indexed.

In the first chapter the authors state clearly their objectives in the use of imaginative literature in social studies classes. They wish to give a student the opportunity to have an experience through which he may not only know a thing, but "feel it through and through." By living through other's experiences he may see "the broad outlines of the problem and its immediate effect on the lives of one individual or one family."

Pertinent suggestions are given for the selection of material for different students. The importance of making this literature available in the classroom and developing a classroom library is well developed.

The authors make a number of suggestions for activities for stimulating reading and for capitalizing on the reading in class discussion. Throughout their discussion, they stress that literature should be used to illuminate facts and to make social problems understandable through making them personal and real.

This is indeed a valuable resource for the teacher.

EDITH E. STARRATT

Sherburne (New York) Central School

BOOKS TO USE WITH PUPILS

THE POOL OF KNOWLEDGE: HOW THE UNITED NATIONS SHARE THEIR SKILLS. By Katherine B. Shippen. New York: Harper, 1954. 148 p. \$2.50.

Katherine Shippen has utilized her skill in writing for children in this book about the technical assistance program of the United Nations. Although intended for boys and girls of 12 and up, it could be used for high school pupils and many adults.

After an opening chapter on the "2400 Million People" of the world, she tells in simple and dramatic style the story of technical assistance in several parts of the world—the Cuscatlan Valley Demonstration Project in El Salvador, the NEW this year . . .



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better utilization of lumber in Brazil, aid for the new government of Libya, assistance in providing better health and better agriculture for India, provisions for better education in Thailand, and several similar stories.

The chapters are short but combine very well a brief picture of the country and the aid through the U.N.

The bibliography includes mostly books for adults and the title of the book is unfortunate, but the book itself is extremely readable and fills a real need in a new field.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Brooklyn College

THE CAINE MUTINY: A NOVEL OF WORLD WAR II. By Herman Wouk. Garden City: Doubleday, 1954. 551 p. Paper, 95 cents.

The Caine Mutiny revolves around the fatal eccentricities of Captain Queeg. His supreme illogic and neurotic compulsiveness affect each individual who comes into contact with him. One is revolted by his pettiness, by his tyrannical behavior, and by his moral and intellectual poverty. Yet, he is a pathetic figure forced to assume a role for which he is not fitted. He is

a self-avowed "book" man who follows the letter of the regulation but who is incapable of mercy and humility. As a human being Queeg is the antithesis of all that we expect a leader to be; nevertheless, he is a leader, duly commissioned by the government of the United States. How can we reconcile these elements? If an individual in a position of power proves himself inadequate, how should he be dealt with? Can a distinction be drawn between incompetency and legal tyranny? Is this question affected by the fact that in war extraordinary circumstances negate traditional human values?

Keefer, whose reaction to Queeg causes Maryk to become an amateur clinical psychologist, is morally culpable for the disintegration of the U. S. S. Caine. His analysis of the whole affair is admirable, but he is incapable of acting on his own conclusions. Keefer understands but chooses to remain aloof, unsoiled by the misery of his fellow officers and crewmen. He sees too many possibilities for personal disaster, hence, does not act. Maryk, on the other hand, does not have Keefer's penetrating insight. He senses the dehumanizing effect Queeg has on his officers and men and rebels against their intellectual, moral, and physical spinelessness. Maryk acts, he thinks,

on the basis of his humanity for the benefit of all. He only half realizes that by opposing Queeg, he is taking on the entire Navy, and that by attacking the entrenched traditions of the U. S. Navy, he is cutting short his own future as a naval officer.

The histor

The histories of Queeg, Maryk, Keith, Keefer, and many others on the U. S. Caine reflect the disjointed nature of society and of individuals during times of great stress. The little world of the U.S.S. Caine and its crew represents, in a metaphorical sense, a small scale projection of contemporary society which a group of fairly mature high school students can absorb, analyze, and grasp. The issues Wouk raises are of singular importance not only in the pages of the book, but in the roiling life surrounding all of us. It is feasible, then, to abstract from the book a series of questions which can make sense to adolescents who, for the most part, are already sensitive to the human problems Wouk deals with. How does one justify authoritarianism in a democracy? In times of stress is it appropriate to sacrifice individual values for the good of the society? What are the characteristics of good leadership and how do the main characters measure up? When is revolution or mutiny justifiable? What likenesses can you see between the American Revolution and the Caine Mutiny? What are the differences? Is the individual always less or more important than the state? If so, why? The list can be expanded indefinitely. But the significance of The Caine Mutiny, as of any other high level work of literature, is its provocativeness and ability to make us re-assess our positions on questions of personal, societal, and even, for that matter, transcendental importance. The fact that The Caine Mutiny is impressive stylistically adds another dimension to a thoroughly stimulating book.

DOUGLAS W. PETERSON

Yale University

Your Dating Days. By Paul H. Landis. New York: Whittlesey House (McGraw-Hill), 1954. 155 p. \$2.50.

Problems of Democracy classes which include a unit on Marriage and Family Living will be interested in this recent book. Actually the subtitle, "Looking Forward to Happy Marriage," is a more accurate description of the contents, for the book discusses many problems of courtship and marriage which trouble young people. Questions about going steady, the advantages and disadvantages of early marriages, the pros and cons of marriage in the face of military service, who's to be boss, and many others are considered. Sexual adjustment is discussed as a psychological and social problem, rather than as a physical one. The factor of differences in social class in selecting a mate is touched upon although recent studies in this area have not yet been used in the study of marriage problems.

In general, Dr. Landis has taken the findings of recent sociological research in the field of marriage and the family and has applied this knowledge to the frequently-asked questions of teen-agers. A happy childhood, the ability to get along with one's parents, common backgrounds, similar education, and a well-integrated personality are all shown to facilitate the individual's task of adjustment within marriage. But Dr. Landis also points out that the determination to succeed can overcome many handicaps. His point of view is well summed up in his statement (p. 148), "Successful marriage is always an achievement, never a gift from heaven."

This book is taken from the revised edition of the textbook, Your Marriage and Family Living. The format has been made more attractive, and the book as a whole should appeal to teen-agers.

DOROTHY W. HAMILTON

Milford (Conn.) High School

This Is America. Edited by Max J. Herzberg. New York: Pocket Books, 1951. 364 p. 25 cents. The Pocket Book of American Poems. Edited by Louis Untermeyer. New York: Pocket Books, 1953. 299 p. 35 cents.

THE POCKET HISTORY OF AMERICAN PAINTING. By James Thomas Flexner. New York: Pocket Books, 1950. 118 p. 25 cents.

100 AMERICAN POEMS, Edited by Selden Rodman. New York: Penguin Signet Books, 1948. 184 p. 25 cents.

The problem of locating suitable supplementary material for classroom use is a persistent one for social studies teachers. One hopeful solution to this problem lies in the more extensive use of pocket books of the type listed above.

The purpose of these four books is to reveal the spirit of American development as it has been reflected in its literature and art. In *This Is America*, Herzberg has selected some of the outstanding essays, poems, orations, sayings, and biographical sketches of Americans which express the changing character of American national life as interpreted by its outstanding authors and statesmen. Organizing the material around the

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topics of "This Fair and Great Land," "The Founding and Making of America," "War and Peace," "Seven Great Americans," "Fact and Fancy," and "Our Young People," the editor has maintained a good balance in presenting a variety of materials to show these various aspects of American life. This is a highly readable and interesting collection of material and should be of great value in high school social studies classes.

The two volumes of poetry and the one of painting bring together some of the outstanding literary and artistic works of our history. Untermeyer's anthology of poetry contains some 200 selections representing works produced from colonial times to the present. The collection is not only representative of the best of American poetry, but also what is most characteristic of American verse. 100 American Poems contains an excellent introduction which gives a broad overview of the development of poetry in American life and includes a highly selected group of poems. Although not all of these poems will be suitable for high school use, teachers will find most of the more popular selections of American verse included in these two anthologies. The outstanding feature of The Pocket History of American Painting is the excellent narrative accompanying the reproductions of some 48 paintings

in which the author explains the personalities of the artists and the historical and cultural setting which influenced their work.

These four books should be invaluable for those teachers desiring to correlate American history and literature. They contain a wealth of material which has been carefully selected and presented in a way which will appeal to high school students.

WILLIS D. MORELAND

Syracuse University

ON THE INTELLECTUAL FRONTIER

Indian Corn in Old America. By Paul Weatherwax. New York: Macmillan, 1954. 253 p. \$7.50.

It is an exciting mixture of scholarship and detective work which Professor Weatherwax, a botanist at Indiana University, unfolds for us in this beautiful book. And it is at the same time a demonstration of the interrelatedness of the disciplines that may convince even the most skeptical. While the author tries to convince us "that this book is mainly a botanical treatise," his performance takes us far afield, into the realms of history (Asian and European, as well as North and South American), anthropology, art,

geography, meteorology, conservation, agriculture, economics, even home economics.

The object of the search is corn, Indian corn, maize, or whatever it may be called, and Mr. Weatherwax has pursued it through the chronicles of fifteenth century Europe, on the peaks of the Andes, in the deserts of Arizona, and in the kitchens of Mexican villages. Almost like a monomaniac, he confronts us with question after question about corn. What should the plant be called? When did Europeans first come upon it? (Probably on the same day as tobacco, he finds, by some of Columbus' men who had hiked inland from the North shore of Cuba.) Did the olden writers have really good reason to believe it had also existed in Asia? How do you make a tortilla, and what other uses does it have besides being a food? And so, on and on, to the biggest question of all: Where did corn originally come from? Any corn we have ever known about cannot seed itself and must have been developed by human efforts. But where? And from what original plant? And how long ago? And how could this "almost immeasurable accomplishment" have been achieved by a people who can have had no systematic understanding of heredity?

All these questions are excitingly explored in a careful search for and through the historical documents and the scientific data, and at each point we are treated to a demonstration of the true scholar's modesty and cautiousness. The search, which might easily have proven boring, is, on the contrary, fascinating: partly because of the surprising importance and uniqueness of corn as a plant and a crop, and partly because of the many rewarding byways into which the author's curiosity and sense of humor lead him. History teachers, by the way, will be relieved to read that the Indians really did teach the colonists to bury a fish in each hill of corn.

Although the book is written in a vocabulary too difficult for the average high school student, and although about 50 of its pages are devoted to rather technical botanical explanations and reasoning, it will still be a valuable book for students to dip into. It alone would provide a large part of the necessary library resources for a core unit on "Corn." And in addition to its text, its 66 pages of illustrations will be found useful by many teachers. For corn plays such an important part in our diets and, in many parts of the country, in our local economics, that it will always be of interest to young people with curiosity.

The strongest impression which this reviewer

gets from the book, however, is that of a perfect object lesson in the naturalness of multidisciplinary study. Perhaps in order to deal adequately with any topic that is interesting, challenging, and real, we must forget the bounds of any given discipline and be ready to roam into them all.

EDWARD T. LADD

Yale University

OTHER BOOKS TO KNOW ABOUT

TIME FLIGHT. By T. Morris Longstreth. New York: Macmillan, 1954. 216 p. \$2.75.

Two teen-age American boys, one a Westerner, the other an Easterner, one an imaginative thinker, the other impulsive in thought and action, are transported from the year 1953 to 1692 to Salem during the witchcraft trials. Here they are accused of witchcraft, have many exciting and some painful experiences during the course of which they meet and talk with Cotton Mather and Judge Stoughton, become good friends with, among others, Penitence and her fearless fiancé, Joseph Putnam, who became the parents of Israel Putnam of Revolutionary War fame.

The author does a good job describing the impact of the witchcraft hysteria on the lives of the people, young and old, and depicting the revolt against those superstitions led by liberty-loving and courageous men and women.

The story is fast moving, the historical background is reasonably accurate, and the vocabulary is suitable for junior and senior high school. Both the space ship enthusiast and the serious history student would find the book interesting and instructive.

RUTH O. M. ANDERSON

Norwich (Conn.) Free Academy

Autumn in Italy. By Sean O'Faolain. New York: Devin-Adair Company, 1953. 207 p. \$3.50.

What is the central task of the social studies teacher in the international aspect of his specialty? Is it to impart to youngsters some perception of the fact that value-systems differ according to time and place? Is it to make them realize that, except for accident of birth, any of us might have been born in different circumstances.

Whether or not you take these perceptions and implied attitudes as representing the central task, certainly the teacher himself ideally needs more understanding of other cultures (and per-

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spective on his own) than any of us can hope to attain. Any American (outside of those originating in southern Italy) who can achieve constructive insight into south Italian cultures probably can do as much regarding any other culture on this planet. Autumn in Italy is about the southern end of the country, whereas the author's earlier book, Summer in Italy, concerns the porth

The great majority of Americans who roam the beaten track from Naples to Pompeii to Sorrento and Capri are bound to find it infinitely more difficult to understand the Italians they meet than they will in northern Italy. The same is true of the inland peasants of the south, who are little known travelers. Both groups, like others to be found on and near the shores of the Mediterranean, are far removed from American experience in their history and circumstances of living. We are baffled when we try to theorize about what makes them tick. Unthinkingly we tend to scorn the flotsam and jetsam of the seaports. Beggars, sharp traders, and petty thieves overshadow the rest of the population in tourist

minds. The reaction that these people are somehow an inferior breed, is, of course, no answer. One must look toward their history and their environment if he wants to understand them.

Consideration of these societies, however, by no means embraces the whole of Autumn in Italy. The book is the work of a sensitive observer and a brilliant Irish writer whose feeling for history is second only to his delight in architecture (an appreciation not widespread in our own country). Most of the writing is freely subjective and rambling-apparently following the author's diary. You don't know what's coming next-humorous trivia, penetrating philosophy, or a poetic description. But the reader will be rewarded by a range of satisfactions, from a better knowledge of geography to perceptions of peasant mores, reactions to communism, Land Reform problems, the Mafia, and occasional goodnatured jibes at Americans. All in a too-short work of rare literary quality.

SEYMOUR W. BEARDSLEY

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